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TITLE:

BORDIGHERA AND THE WESTERN RIVIERA

PLACE:

LONDON

DATE:

1883

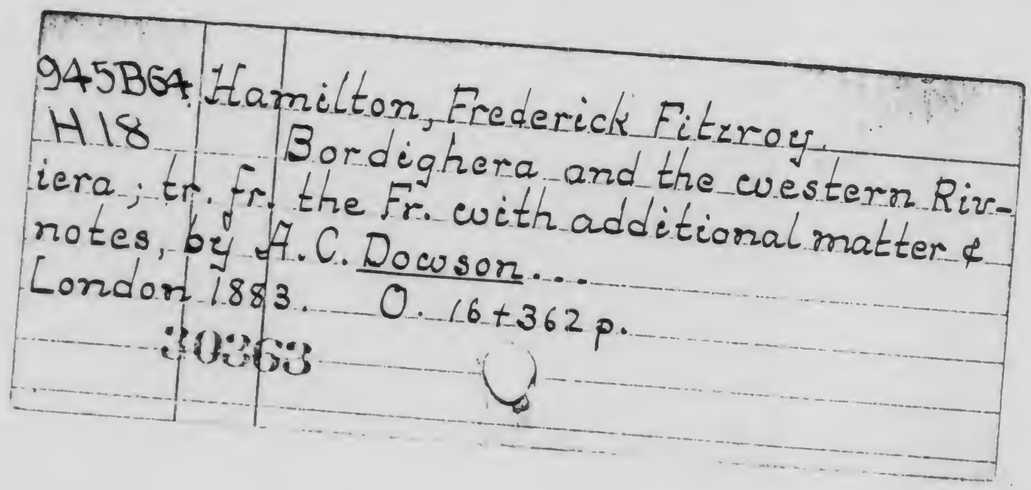
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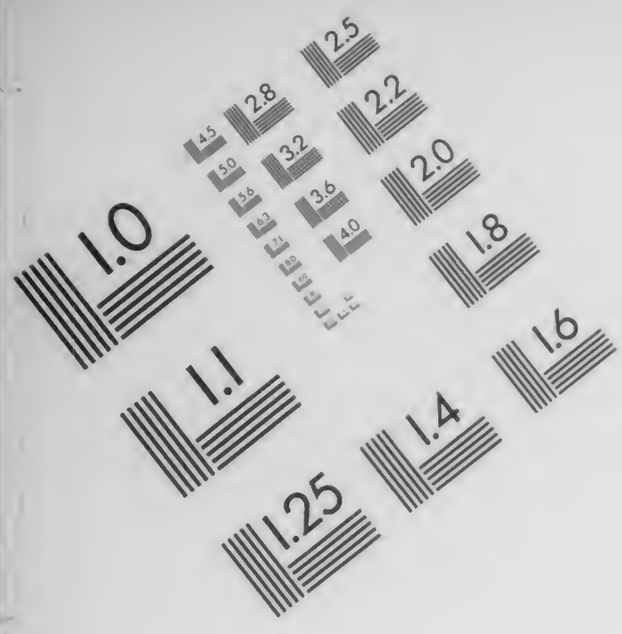
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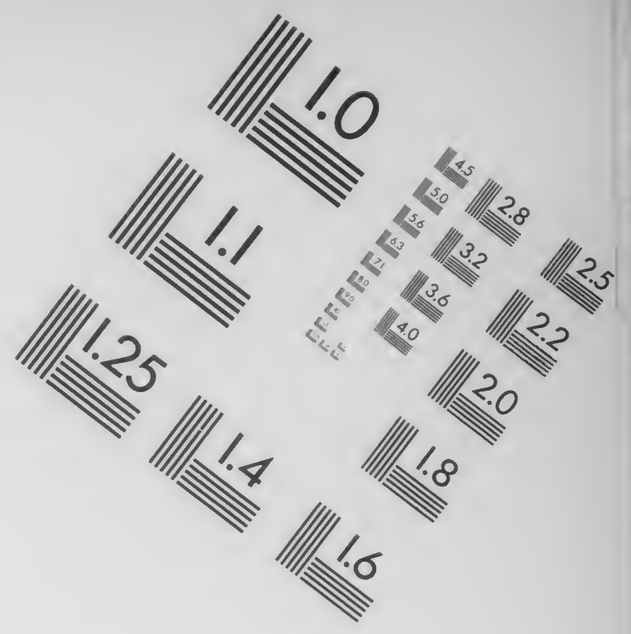


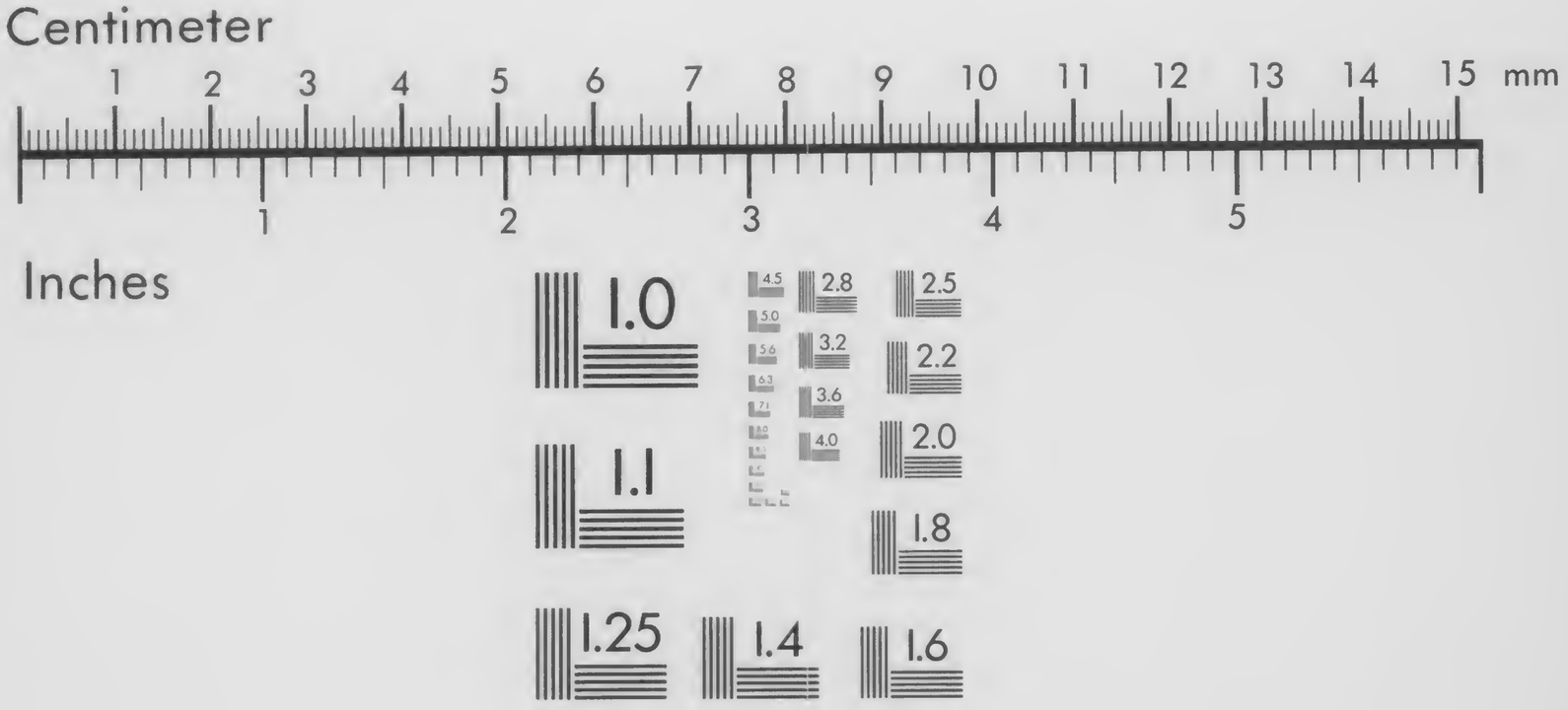
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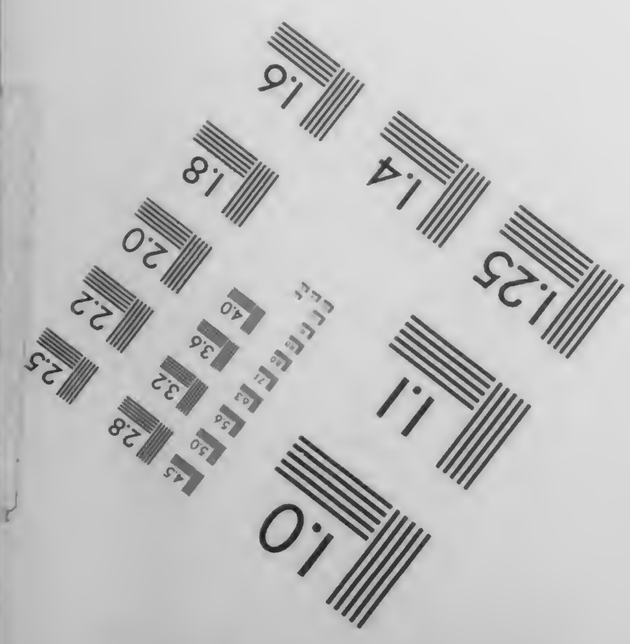
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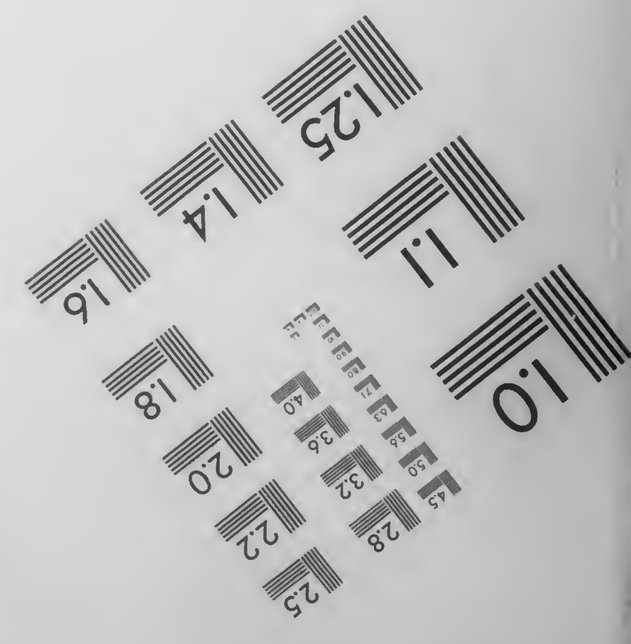
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BORDIGHERA

AND THE

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OPINIONS OF THE PRESS

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« Desultory » is the last word to be used in connection with this volume, which is packed tightly from cover to cover with useful information, all closely bearing on one distinct object. There is no padding here..... M. Hamilton, who is an old resident, and the English banker at Bordighera is a fit exponent of its merits..... being qualified to say in the most transparent language and the most logical and methodical manner, all that he has to say. He has also been fortunate in finding a translator who renders him into our more misty idiom with very little loss of lucidity, and who himself contributes two interesting chapters to the book. M. Hamilton grapples with every branch of his subject — climate, history, Italian law, fauna and flora, artistic features, and language. »

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« The book is to be recommanded for its varied information and interesting sketches of bygone days to all who are going to Bordighera..... The average visitor will find many useful suggestions, while for students there are articles on the geology, the fauna and flora of the district, the local dialect and a valuable chapter of practical information on Italian law and administration as they affect foreign residents.... »

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« The work strikes out a new line; it is instructive, and the various information is judiciously arranged. »

DUBLIN EXPRESS

« This work is of a solid character..... and will certainly be the standard work for all those who desire information about Bordighera. »

Sanremo 1884 — Tip. Biancheri.

BORDIGHERA

AND

THE WESTERN RIVIERA.

BY

FREDERICK FITZROY HAMILTON,

AUTHOR OF 'THE BOTANY OF THE BIBLE,' ETC., ETC.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH, WITH ADDITIONAL MATTER AND NOTES,

BY

ALFRED C. DOWSON.

Est ubi plus tepeant hiemes, ubi gratior aura
leniat et rabiem Canis et momenta Leonis?
HOR.

LONDON:
EDWARD STANFORD, 55, CHARING CROSS, S.W.
1883.

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Know ye the land
where the citron and olive are fairest of fruit
and the voice of the nightingale never is mute?
Where the tints of the earth and the hues of the sky,
in colour though varied, in beauty may vie,
and the purple of ocean is deepest in dye?

Fair Italy!
Thou art the garden of the world, the home
of all Art yields and Nature can decree;
even in thy desert, what is like to thee?

BYRON.

12 MAY 1891 Bangs 30 02 May 91 Lee

123157

LONDON:

PRINTED BY WILLIAM CLOWES AND SONS, LIMITED, STAMFORD STREET
AND CHARING CROSS.

PREFACE.

HAVING at M. Hamilton's request undertaken an English translation of his work on Bordighera and Western Liguria, and being thus the means of placing another book on the Riviera before English readers, a few words as to its aim and contents may not be out of place.

The various works which have appeared within the last few years, having reference to that part of Southern Europe, may roughly be divided into two classes:

(1) Those almost entirely of a medical character, written by Physicians practising at one or other of the many winter resorts on the coast, and treating of the climate and the benefits that are to be gained from it: some to urge the claims of the comparatively less known towns: others to give greater prominence to those whose advantages are already admitted.

(2) Books which are of the nature of *impressions de voyage:* the result frequently of the diary or notes of an invalid who has passed the winter wandering from one picturesque town to another; or perhaps, remaining quietly at one of them, has made that especial spot and its neighbourhood the basis of a little *brochure* of descriptive matter with all the local traditions thrown in as "padding."

To neither of these divisions, however, can the present

work be referred; for though it treats very fully of the climate of Bordighera, its advantages as a health resort and those features in which it differs from its neighbours, and also contains detailed descriptions of the many points of interest in its environs, yet these are but a portion of its contents. The volume, in fact, is an endeavour to place before the visitor to that portion of the Riviera of which Bordighera may be considered as a centre, the fullest information on almost every topic upon which he could possibly desire it. For it contains, in addition to the subjects to which I have just referred, the history of Liguria from the earliest days down to the present time, the story of the foundation of Bordighera and a full account of its many vicissitudes during the past four hundred years, with sketches of the fortunes of the neighbouring towns of Ventimiglia, San Remo, Monaco, &c.

The Fauna and Flora of the district have each a section devoted to them, and in the latter the botanist will find particulars of all the wild flowers he is likely to meet with in his pedestrian rambles. The geological formation of this part of the coast, which is almost unique in its character, and the dialect, past and present, of the inhabitants, are both very thoroughly treated; and these, with chapters on "Italian Law," and "The Artistic Features of Bordighera and its Neighbourhood," give a variety and completeness to the work which place it in a category of its own, and fully explain my wish to make it more generally known through the medium of an English edition, which may perhaps prove a convenience to those who have neither the time nor inclination to study it in French.

Several important additions have also been made to

the present edition; for not only has every chapter been carefully revised by the author and not a few considerably amplified, but that entitled "Practical Hints to English Residents in Italy," has been specially written for it by M. Hamilton. The two chapters on "The Riviera in Olden Days," and "British Operations on the Riviera in the Eighteenth Century" are also new.

There are only two other points to which I wish here to allude: 1st, to state that the Latin and Italian documents, to which reference is made in Chapters X. and XI., Part II. (where translations of the latter are to be found), are given *in extenso* in the French edition, in which they may be studied by any who wish to do so; and 2ndly, to tender my most sincere thanks to those friends whose kindly and valuable help has enabled me to place these translations before my readers, and who, at my request, readily undertook a task entailing both labour and patience, owing to the peculiar and technical character of the Italian in which they are expressed.

ALFRED C. DOWSON.

ARTS CLUB, HANOVER SQUARE,
October, 1883.

ERRATA.

Page 14, line 19, *for* "position," *read* "situation."
„ 15. „ 17, *for* "north-west," *read* "north-east."
„ 15, „ 19, *for* "north-east," *read* "north-west."
„ 47, „ 2, *for* "tenasti," *read* "tentasti."
„ 51, „ 28, *for* "Mont," *read* "Mount."
„ 57, „ 15, *for* "east," *read* "west."
„ 61, „ 31, *for* "at Turbia," *read* "of Augustus."
„ 65, „ 4, *for* "further eastward," *read* "further westward."
„ 67, „ 4, *for* "freestone blocks," *read* "limestone blocks."
„ 85, „ 26, *for* "Ventimilium," *read* "Vintimilium."
„ 92, „ 13, *for* "to which this sovereignty continued," *read* "from which this sovereignty dated."
„ 111, „ 32, *for* "at pure," *read* "of pure."
„ 116, „ 7, *for* "at the head," *read* "at the side."
„ 116, „ 8, *for* "upon the right," *read* "upon the left."
„ 118, „ 5, *for* "to the east," *read* "to the west."
„ 162, „ 2, *for* "which shared," *read* "who shared."
„ 163, „ 8, *for* "national part," *read* "national party."
„ 177, „ 21, *for* "Oscian," *read* "Oscan."
„ 227, „ 19, *for* "Cimbres," *read* "Cimbri."
„ 265, „ 31, *for* "south-west," *read* "south-east."
„ 289, „ 21, *for* "celeris," *read* "celerio."
„ 325, „ 8, *for* "Spruce Family," *read* "Spurge Family."

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BORDIGHERA

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PART I.

BORDIGHERA AS A WINTER RESORT.

CHAPTER I.

1840 to 1880.

How first brought into notice—"*Dr. Antonio*"—Its character and advantages as a Winter station.

Forty years ago the traveller who passed over the celebrated Cornice Road, either in post-chaise or by diligence, saw nothing in Bordighera but a place somewhat finely situated. The village which commanded the Cape was picturesque, no doubt, as were all along the Riviera, but it did not possess sufficient attractions to tempt him to remain the night there. Indeed, the Guide Books, even the classic Murray, found nothing to point out in Bordighera except some beautiful palm plantations.

But as time passed on, and the regular winter stations along the Riviera, first Nice and then Mentone and San Remo, increased in size and became too expensive and too

crowded to suit those who sought quietness and a simple country life, some English, the pioneers of civilisation all over the world, began to speak of Bordighera as one of the wintering places of the future.

To some, indeed, the name of the town was already known. A pen of the first order, that of the Patriot of Taggia—who delighted, when an exile, to celebrate in the language of that country where he had again found liberty and kindness, those places where he had passed his youth—brought the name of Bordighera into prominence by placing there the scene of one of the most passionate and touching stories to be found in English literature.

The events are supposed to take place in 1840, and in the spring-time. A rich and elderly English baronet, proud and over-bearing, with the strong prejudices of an ultra-Tory—a type, in a word, of the aristocrat of the old school, now fast disappearing—has passed the winter in Rome for the benefit of the health of his only daughter, a beautiful and charming girl about twenty years of age.

Returning to England at the beginning of April by way of the Riviera, the horses take fright and overturn the carriage at the bottom of the slope which terminates in the plain of Arziglia; that is to say, in front of the village of Bordighera, and about 200 yards from the first inhabited houses—just at the point, in fact, where one now sees the entrance of the second tunnel from the railway station.

At the moment of the accident the village doctor, a young Sicilian—his nationality no doubt suggested by the number of Neapolitan and Sicilian refugees in the neighbourhood after the events of 1848–49, many of whom

settled there—is following the carriage in his *calessino*, and hastens forward to attend to the young lady, who, he at once discovers, has broken her leg. Dr. Antonio orders the fair sufferer to be carried to the nearest house, the *Osteria del Mattone*, a village *auberge* kept by an old woman and her daughter, and situated at the turning of the road which mounts to the village of Bordighera, almost at the same spot where is now the modern villa of the same name.

The installation of a family accustomed to the greatest luxury takes place, for good or evil, in this tumble-down dwelling, and is followed by sundry incidents, amongst which may be mentioned the violent discussions which take place between the old and aristocratic baronet and the young and liberal doctor, whilst of even greater importance is the fact that with the latter the invalid unconsciously falls in love.

Gradually her father softens, and friendly relations are established between the travellers and the people of the country; and later on, as his daughter gains strength, excursions are made in the neighbourhood, which allow the author to describe Bordighera, its characteristics, and its peasantry, with an ability only equalled by its grace.

But at length the moment arrives when the recovery is complete, and they must depart; but at this point that portion of the book ends which treats of Bordighera, and I will not, by attempting an analysis of the story, spoil the interest of those who have not yet read this delightful book, but merely recommend them to make acquaintance with it at the first opportunity.

But in placing the scene of his romance at Bordighera

the Chevalier Ruffini has obeyed a sentiment more profound than that which causes an author to place the incidents of his story at a spot which he knows well and is able to describe faithfully. Our author loved this place already, and wished to make it better known to strangers. He tells us this himself in a letter addressed to one of our citizens, and from which we give an extract :—

". . . Nessuno potrà contrastarmi il diritto di essere annoverato fra i più antichi ammiratori di Bordighera. Ella certo non ignora che Bordighera fu, posso dire, la mia prima fiamma ; non avevo ancora un pelo al mento, quando la vidi per la prima volta. S'andava collo zio canonico, a vedere non so che o chi a Ventimiglia, e quella gloriosa altura, coronata di palme, colpì siffattamente la mia infantile fantasia che ne sognai lungo pezzo la notte. La rividi molti e molti anni dopo, nel 1848, quando colla barba già grigia, mi riconducevo in patria per la via di Nizza. 'La rividi più bella e *non* meno altera,' e si fu allora che reso ardito dagli anni, le indirizzai quella dichiarazione in regola, che feci poco stante di pubblica ragione." *

The following is an English translation of the above :—

". . . No one, I am sure, will dispute with me the right of being counted among the oldest admirers of Bordighera. You are doubtless not ignorant that Bordighera was, so to speak, my first flame ; I had not a single hair upon my chin when I saw it for the first time. I was on my way to Ventimiglia with an uncle, a canon, to see some one or something (I have forgotten who or what) at that town, and that glorious height, crowned with palm trees, made a profound impression upon my childish imagination : I remember dreaming of it great part of the night. I beheld it again, many and many a year afterwards, when in 1848, with my beard already grey, I returned to this country by way of Nice. 'I saw her again as fair but *not* less proud,' and being emboldened by years, made a formal avowal of my sentiments, which was shortly afterwards confirmed by a public declaration."

The publication of 'Dr. Antonio' was then the first step towards making the advantages of the position and climate

* See the *Via Aurelia*, Feb. 20, 1876.

of Bordighera known to strangers. A few years later the Hôtel d'Angleterre opened its doors to travellers, and from that day the little foreign colony has never ceased, year by year, to increase, and the tourist who alights to-day at the handsome building which forms Bordighera Station, knowing nothing of the place but the description given in 'Dr. Antonio,' will certainly be astonished by the changes he notices on every side. The thirty years which have passed have indeed left their mark upon it.

However, Bordighera has not yet become a town, and we should indeed be misleading a stranger who proposed coming here, if we allowed him to think he would arrive at a fashionable place like Nice or San Remo. Neither is it organised as a winter resort, with band, circle, casino, &c., as are so many of our *summer* haunts in Switzerland and Germany.

It is still a village, a commune of which the population, according to the official census, has not reached the total of 3000 inhabitants. These, engrossed in agriculture and fishing, and accustomed to a solitary and simple life, have but lately realised the advantages which nature has showered upon their country and the brilliant future which is reserved for it.

After the Chevalier Ruffini came those to whom he had made it known. Wandering about Europe from north to south, from east to west, are a class of travellers always on the look-out for, and delighted to call attention to, those places which, from their climate, situation, and geographical position, are suitable for winter resorts ; and these could not fail to be struck in passing by our Cape, from which may be seen a view unique in the Riviera ; by the palm plantations, which make

this spot look like a piece of the East transported into Europe; by the superb sites — tempting to a builder's eye—offered by the lower ranges of the hills and the extensive plain stretching to the western limit of the commune.

And this, indeed, is precisely what has occurred.

Little by little the name of Bordighera spread over Europe, and travellers arranged their plans so as to visit it. Hotels have been opened, some families have settled here—some indeed have purchased land and built villas, and the municipal administration has at last begun to understand that the future prosperity of Bordighera is to be found in the development of its winter colony.

After long discussion, and hesitation even more prolonged than is usual in such cases, the municipal council at length started fairly forward in the direction which destiny had marked out for it. A loan of one hundred and fifty thousand francs was arranged, and three broad roads, forming together nearly a mile and a half of well-made carriage road, has been opened. "It is but a commencement," you will say; and this is true, but it is no slight thing to have advanced even so far. In the development of towns, the first and most important function which rests upon those in authority is to open good means of communication: the rest follows as a matter of course, and may safely be left to private speculation. To-day Bordighera possesses two large hotels, several smaller ones, and many pensions; a fair number of shops, amply meeting the wants of visitors; an English church, where service is held regularly from the middle of October to the middle of May; two chemists, a telegraph office, a railway station, where all trains stop without exception;

and between forty and fifty villas and apartments, especially built and furnished for letting to the winter visitors.

Here then are the elements for a foreign colony, which there is no doubt will rapidly develop. I can but repeat, however, that a stranger coming to Bordighera, and expecting to find it *a fashionable wintering place*, will be greatly disappointed.

At Nice, at San Remo, and even at Mentone, beyond the advantages of a southern climate, one finds the whole retinue of fashionable life: *here* the visitor meets with nothing but a perfect climate and the loveliest scenery; all else is conspicuous by its absence!

The advantages then of Bordighera are these: a winter residence, not only sunny and sheltered, but free from the noise and turmoil of a town, and where nature brings her choicest treasures to your very door. These characteristics new towns lose, alas! only too quickly; let us hope that at least Bordighera will keep them for as long a time as possible.

No doubt it is to be desired that the foreign colony should increase, and that speculation should develop in every possible manner our "*million square yards of admirable building land*"; but in all its developments Bordighera will be wise to preserve before everything its character as a quiet and rural wintering resort, where, under a southern sun, and in the midst of a tropical vegetation, far from the noisy throng and the buzz of mundane pleasures, worn-out humanity can find rest, and the sick restoration to health. As long as our little commune preserves these features, its success is certain, for it will take the first rank amongst all places of its

kind: it will more and more become a rendezvous of the class of traveller I have described; but on the day that it takes another course, Bordighera must resign itself to follow sadly in the wake of its better-known rivals.

Looking at it from this point of view, one might counsel Bordighera to act as did the inhabitants of a certain large village in another part of the world, whose designation they were advised to change into that of town: "Nay," said they, "we would rather be the first of villages than the last of towns."

CHAPTER II.

THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF BORDIGHERA.

General topography—The Cape—The Tower of Mostaccini—La Ruota—Colla di Rodi—Montenero—Sasso—Borghetto—Vallecrosia—Nervia—Roia.

THE chain of the Maritime Alps, which in this part is mingled with the Apennines, runs parallel to the coast at a distance of about 37 miles from it. Its highest peaks in our neighbourhood do not attain a greater elevation than 9800 feet above the level of the Mediterranean. The area situated between this range and the coast is occupied by a confused mass of secondary hills, as a rule very stony, with a deplorable absence of trees and extremely broken up.

This area is furrowed by a series of valleys running north and south, and which gradually diminish in importance from the French frontier to Bordighera. The Roia, which empties itself into the sea at Ventimiglia,

has its source in the central chain of the Alps, owing its waters to the perpetual snow of the *Col di Tenda*. The Nervia, which has its mouth at the western extremity of the great plain of Bordighera, may be followed north as far almost as Dolceacqua, where it turns to the east and is lost to north of this neighbourhood. The torrents of those valleys which follow, as we go from west to east (those of Vallecrosia, Borghetto and Sasso), only receive the pluvial waters coming from the southern slope of the secondary chain of mountains formed by the upper valley of the Nervia.

The almost isolated range which commences at the Cape of Bordighera and separates the Borgo Marina from the valley of Sasso, reaches a height of from 800 to 1000 feet for the distance of three-quarters of a mile, up to the Tower of Mostaccini, which protects the entrance of the Borghetto valley. From this point it is connected with the shoulder of Montenero by a ridge which runs north and south between the valley of Borghetto and the upper extremity of that of Sasso. The *Strada Romana* runs along the foot of the chain on the south, the path of the aqueduct being on the opposite side; near the top is found the communal road to Sasso and that which is named after the *Fontana Vecchia*, which follows almost a straight line from the old village of Bordighera to the Tower of Mostaccini. A number of little paths, crossing the olive plantations, bind these four roads together in all directions, and enable the visitor to vary his walks *ad infinitum*. Indeed it is a fact, that there are few winter stations which offer to the visitor a wider or more varied field for excursions than our neighbourhood; only, to be able thoroughly to enjoy a sojourn at Bordighera, one must be

a lover of wild flowers, of silent woods, of rugged mountains, and be satisfied with these and the vast horizon of a country which has yet received no embellishment from the hand of man. Those then who desire to find in their winter home something which may remind them of Hyde Park or the *Bois de Boulogne* had better not stop here, for we possess nothing which even in the most remote degree resembles the *Promenade des Anglais* of Nice or the *Viale dei Colli* of Florence.

However, as these pages are intended to be read at Bordighera, it is useless to give a description of a country and scenery which the reader will already have under his eyes: I will therefore pass on at once to indicate the principal excursions which can be made in the district.

The traveller who wishes to make acquaintance with the natural beauties of the place, and to acquire a knowledge of its topography, ought first of all to betake himself to the plateau of the Cape of St. Ampelio. From this superb point of view, the eye can take in the Italian coast as far as San Remo and the French almost to Toulon; yet, however beautiful this may strike him, it is still inferior to that from the point I suggest as *the first walk* which the stranger should take on his arrival, viz:

The Tower of Mostaccini.—This excursion does not take an hour and a half, both going and returning. To reach the Tower, the pedestrian follows the *Strada Romana* until close to Pozzoforte, from whence he must turn to the right by the first path which presents itself. He can, however, equally well gain the summit of the hill, though it is somewhat a longer route, by climbing the path behind the bastions of the old town, taking the mule track

by the Fontana Vecchia and following it straight onwards till it brings him to his destination. The tower is probably of Roman origin; at any rate, it served as an *avisium* (or watch-tower) in the middle ages. It is in a perfect state of preservation, but does not offer any other point of interest to the tourist, than that from it is obtained a view unrivalled along the Riviera.

La Madonna della Ruota is a hamlet situated on the high road, about a mile and a half to the eastward of Bordighera. Here is a sanctuary founded by the knights of Rhodes, from whom it derives its name, Ruota. The church contains an Annunciation in marble, which has a certain artistic value. Sulphurous waters gush forth here in two places: one at the side of Montenero, behind the church; the other below, almost upon the beach which is called *Giunchetto*.

Colla di Rodi is a large village admirably situated on the top of Capo Nero, which separates the bay of San Remo from that of Ospedaletti, a little hamlet about a mile and a half further on than Ruota, and which took its name from a hospital (now entirely disappeared), which also was erected by the knights of Rhodes, or, as they are perhaps better known to us, the knights of St. John of Jerusalem or of Malta.

The visitor to Colla will find two things which he would hardly expect to come across in such a very out-of-the-way place: viz. a library of 6000 volumes and a gallery of pictures, amongst which are some works of great artistic merit. Both of these are legacies to his native town by Professor S. P. Rambaldi, a distinguished professor, who died in Tuscany in 1865.

Montenero is the name of an extensive wood, over-

hanging the valley of Sasso and the bay of Ruota, and exactly over the latter are some gaping apertures, which go by the name of *ciotti fumosi*, or "smoking holes," owing to the popular tradition, which states that formerly smoke may have been seen issuing from them.

Montenero joins to the north-east Caggio, which in its turn serves as a shoulder to the gigantic Bignone, a striking mountain clothed with turf to its very summit, which rises to the height of nearly 3300 feet, and from which may be obtained one of the most striking views in the Riviera. These woods, viz. those both of Montenero and Caggio, are admirable places for long pedestrian excursions and pic-nics: the flora is very rich, and gently sloping paths wander in every direction.

Sasso is a little village situated at the head of the valley of the same name: it offers few points of interest to the visitor except its unusual origin, which is that of a strong castle turned into a village.

The Borghetto Valley, the first to the west of Bordighera, contains the villages of Borghetto, Vallebuona, and Seborga, which latter occupies its most distant point. These villages are all extremely picturesque and well worth a visit; as far as Vallebuona there is a good carriage road.

The Vallecrosia Valley only possesses a carriage road as far as the village of the same name: if the traveller goes either by carriage or on horseback, he will pass, at the point where this road turns off from the high road, a very interesting establishment—a home or asylum with a school attached, where the boys are taught a trade: the establishment was founded by an English lady for the orphans of poor protestants of both sexes, who are received from all parts of Italy. This valley, wider and colder

than the previous one, also contains three villages, viz. Vallecrosia, San Biagio, and Soldano.

The broad valley of the Nervia contains also several villages; Camporosso, Dolceacqua (remarkable for its excellent wines and its castle, dating from the middle ages), and Pigna, celebrated for its beautiful forest and its mineral waters.

The valley of the *Roia* (rapid river? from the Latin *ruo*), offers little of interest, but a very beautiful drive, unless indeed the tourist is able to afford time to push on as far as Giandola or St. Dalmas, an excursion which necessitates an absence of several days: should he be able to do so, either of those places may be made the centre of the most agreeable excursions.

But those I have mentioned are far from being the only interesting drives or excursions which are to be found in our neighbourhood.

The sanctuary of Santa Croce at the entrance of the valley of Vallecrosia, the Castel d'Appio above Ventimiglia, Taggia (the birth-place and for so many years the home of the Chevalier Ruffini), with the lovely valley of Argentina and a great number of other localities, offer to the taste of the winter visitor excursions as beautiful as varied, and not exquisite views only, but historical, archæological and geological curiosities of the greatest interest.

Artists also will find in our valleys and on our hills an inexhaustible mine for sketches and pictures, and I am happy to be able to call their attention to an interesting work on this subject from the pen of M. Charles Garnier, which they will find further on.

CHAPTER III.

DISTINCTIVE CHARACTER OF THE CLIMATE.

Special reasons for the Mediterranean climate—Exceptional position of Bordighera—Known and inferred causes of the climate.

THE Provençal and Ligurian coast, situated between the 43rd and 44th parallels of latitude, rejoices in a hotter sun than that of the north of Europe, because it is situated from six to seven degrees further south. But this alone is not sufficient to explain the exceptional softness of the climate: for the 43rd parallel traverses the Caucasus, Tartary, and the enormous lakes of North America, and everyone knows that the winter of those countries has no resemblance whatever to that of Liguria. There must be, then, some special influences, in addition to the latitude, in order to produce the climate which we here enjoy: they are—

1st. That we face due south on the shore of a sea whose waters, thanks to their shallowness, have a temperature far higher than those of the deep oceans in the same latitude.

2ndly. That we possess a lofty range of mountains, separating the coast from the cold plains of the north.

We obtain then as a result of latitude and position, by the juxta-position at the same time of sea and mountains, a climate which differs considerably from those of the north of Europe, in having a far greater amount both of heat and light, and a sky far less frequently over-shadowed with clouds.

But this climate, so superior to those found in the foggy countries of the north, varies considerably in its details one place with another, owing to the nature of their soil, their position as regards the sea and its depth or shallowness, the height and distance of the mountains, which to a greater or less degree shelter the various localities and modify considerably the direction of the winds. For if we study a map of the coasts of Provence and Liguria, we shall notice that all the places referred to—Cannes, Nice, Mentone, San Remo, Alassio, Pegli, Nervi, and the rest—are, with one exception, situated at the bottom of bays more or less deep: Bordighera alone occupying a prominent position.

The promontory, the extremity of which forms the cape of Bordighera, presents on the map the appearance of a right angle, the coast receding in a straight line on each side for nearly two miles to north-west, to the bottom of the bay of La Ruota, and for more than three to the north-east beyond Ventimiglia.

The first result of this is that all winds from east or west, veering south, necessarily blow from the sea, the consequence being *a salter air* at Bordighera, even inland, than at any other place along the coast.

The predominating influence of wind from the sea forms then the special peculiarity of our climate, the only one, indeed, which has a serious and appreciable value.

The reader will find further on a detailed analysis of the climate, so I will confine myself here to giving a summary of it. The comparison of meteorological observations made at Bordighera with those of the neighbouring winter resorts, shows that this climate really possesses

some peculiarities which are not found in other places along the coast; thus it is impossible to deny:

1. That the variations of temperature are less; that is to say, that it is both warmer in winter and cooler in summer.

2. That the cold rains from the mountains are rarer.

3. That the winds here are more frequent and also stronger, but that, modified in their course, they are warmer and damper.

4. That the sky is more frequently cloudless, and consequently the climate is sunnier during the winter.

But these conclusions are merely suggestions. They are summarised, it is true, from careful observations, as well as indicated by the geographical position; but it is only by a careful comparison of *means* during a long series of years, that we can definitely ascertain the facts.

The facts, however, even when most complete, constitute differences so infinitesimal that they would be apparent only in meteorological reports.

The climate of Bordighera is, then, from all we can learn, very similar to those of the rest of the coast, with a somewhat larger proportion of sea winds and a salter air, which gives it an essentially tonic character.

This, then, is the only conclusion which it is possible to draw from the facts with which meteorology furnishes us, and this result naturally suggests the question, "What complaints does the climate of Bordighera especially suit?" To which we reply, Those which require a southern climate combined with a tonic and saline air.

CHAPTER IV.

LOCAL SANITARY CONDITIONS.

Sanitary position—Drainage of the flat ground—Death-rate of Bordighera and other places.

For the traveller who thinks of passing a season at one of the winter stations on the Mediterranean coast, an agreeable climate and a pleasant situation are not the only points to be considered; the sanitary conditions of the place necessarily play an important part in the selection. Strictly speaking, *all* the winter stations of this part of Europe enjoy very favourable sanitary conditions, especially if we compare them with the large towns of northern Europe. The powerful sun which warms them, and the dry and purifying winds which sweep their streets during the winter, necessarily produce this result. But if we analyse the details, if we compare one locality with another, we are compelled to admit that Bordighera is the most favoured of all.

Now there are *three* classes of facts which influence the sanitary conditions of a place: its topographical position, the nature of the soil, and the density, in a greater or less degree, of its population.

To assure ourselves that the *position* of Bordighera is eminently healthy, it is enough to make a visit to the Cape and look around.

The old town, situated on a ridge, is completely exposed to strong east and west winds, which penetrate into the most remote corners of the streets and even of the houses. New Bordighera, that is the *Borgo Marina*, with

its broad and rich olive woods, is, it is true, only exposed to the west winds; but the whole of this neighbourhood, jutting out as it does into the sea, is found to be infinitely more airy and more subject to purifying sea air than is possible in towns situated in bays.

However, at first sight a stranger might perhaps think that the drainage of new Bordighera is not all that could be desired. The old town, with all the buildings which are grouped around the Cape and on the hillsides above the *Strada Romana*, are no doubt sheltered from any suspicion of this sort; but that part which is necessarily destined to receive the chief portion of the town of the future, that is, the *Via Vittorio Emmanuele* and the land separating it from *Strada Romana*, stretching from the Cape to the Borghetto valley and beyond, is only raised about 12 feet above the level of the sea. Nor is this all. The old high-road, now become the *Via Vittorio Emmanuele*, having been constructed on a bank of sand and gravel which the sea had gradually washed up, the level ground to the north is found at certain points to be considerably lower than the shore.

How then, under such conditions, is drainage possible?

Nature herself, most fortunately, comes forward to help us.

Further on the reader will see, in the geological chapter, how the delta of the *Borgo* has been formed, and the constituents of its soil; so I will only mention here that the soil is so porous that water penetrates it and disappears with extraordinary rapidity.

The question is therefore answered in the simplest and most efficacious manner possible: by a natural drainage.

With regard, then, to the theory that I have been advancing, that Bordighera stands at the head of the winter resorts so far as *healthiness* is concerned, I will refer my readers to the statistics furnished by the communal registers, which all tend to support my position.

Below I give the totals of births and deaths for the ten years ending 1880:—

	Births.	Deaths.
1871	61	37
1872	54	34
1873	64	44
1874	54	38
1875	60	46
1876	87	45
1877	81	36
1878	68	55
1879	95	48
1880	70	48
Total	694	421

The excess, then, of births over deaths is 273, more than 50 per cent.; but the proportion which the result of this table gives is less than the truth, because the foreign colony furnishes a certain number of deaths, which is rarely the case with births.

The population of the commune was, by the census of 1871, 1688; in 1878, 2048. The mean for that period is, consequently, 1868. The mean of deaths during that time was 42·1, which, for a population of 1868, gives a death-rate of 22·7.*

This striking fact will be conclusive to the minds of all statisticians, for it proves that the sanitary conditions of Bordighera are eminently healthful.

* According to the Census of 1881, the population of Bordighera on December 31st was 2372, or an increase of 324 souls in the three years.—A. C. D.

Below I give, as a means of comparison, the death-rate of some of the large towns of Europe:—

Rome	40·	deaths per thousand.
Paris	31·2	„
London	25·	„
Lyons	31·2	„
Berlin	29·4	„
Madrid	34·4	„
Amsterdam	34·4	„
Leghorn	28·5	„
Nice	32·2	„

Fifty years ago the entire population of Bordighera inhabited the circle formed by the old bastions; but on the opening of the carriage-road from Nice to Genoa building operations commenced at the *Marina* and the slopes which surround the old town. Into these new houses those residing in the old portions of the town gradually settled themselves, so that we may truthfully say at the present time that, along the whole of the coast, there is no place where the residents are spread over so wide an area.

We must therefore conclude *à priori* that Bordighera ought to be an exceptionally healthy place, as indeed we find all the conditions fulfilled which justify such a conclusion, viz.:—

1. An airy position, far from the mouth of a river or from any collection of stagnant water.
2. A soil so constituted as to form a natural drainage.
3. A small population spread over a large area.

This conclusion is supported by facts. Epidemics are unknown here; the cholera especially, in spite of frequent visits to the neighbouring towns both east and west, has never shown itself at Bordighera.

CHAPTER V.

THE CLIMATE MEDICALLY CONSIDERED.

Opinion of a resident practitioner—A few hints to invalids.

ALTHOUGH this book is by no means a medical work, I have much pleasure in inserting here a few notes on the character of the climate, for which I am indebted to Dr. J. A. Goodchild, English physician at Bordighera:

"The general character of the climate of the Riviera has been too often described, and is too well known, both to the medical profession and to the public, for it to be needful for me to go deeply into the question of its merits and demerits in the treatment of disease; so I shall content myself with giving those particulars in which, so far as my experience goes, the climate of Bordighera differs from that of its neighbours. In the climatological portion of this work the observations of Mr. Hamilton go to prove what I should consider probable beforehand, namely, that whilst the average temperature in the winter is much the same as that of its neighbours, it is cooler in spring and autumn, and warmer in midwinter, than most of them; and also that, when compared with the east bay of Mentone, undoubtedly the warmest situation on the entire coast, the curious fact appears, that whilst the maxima at Mentone are usually from four to six degrees higher than at Bordighera, the minima are in almost every instance lower.

"At first sight this difference is puzzling, but the explanation consists in the fact that radiation goes on far less rapidly during the night from the surface of the densely sheltered plain and hills of Bordighera than from the bare and rocky mountains which form the coast at Mentone. In the daytime these arid rocks reflect a considerable amount of heat, and the higher maxima at Mentone are no doubt due in great measure to this cause. It often happens, however, that during cold weather, even in the daytime, Mentone is colder than Bordighera. This, however, only occurs during exceptionally cold seasons, and is evidence of the presence of large masses of snow upon the mountains above Mentone at the time of this interchange of relative day temperatures. Two other causes contribute to render Bordighera more suitable, for

those who wish to be much in the open air in midwinter, than either Mentone or San Remo, both due to its south-west aspect; the two latter places facing south-east.

"The first is, that the sun sets into the sea, so that its warmth is preserved till the last moment, whilst at Mentone and San Remo it sets nearly an hour earlier behind the mountains which lie to the west of these places. This is matter of great concern to invalids in the short winter, as the afternoon is considerably prolonged, and the sunset chill, which constitutes one of the *dangers* of a southern climate, comes on more gradually.

"The second advantage consists in the much fuller protection which Bordighera enjoys from the east and south-east winds than its rivals; these are the prevalent winds in midwinter, and blow straight into the neighbouring towns. Mr. Hamilton has stated that the protection from the south-east is only partial; this is, however, only true of the old town and some portions of the *Marina*. The neighbourhood of the *Strada Romana*, which is the residential quarter, and where the two new hotels are in course of construction, is better sheltered from easterly winds than perhaps any similar situation on the coast.

"As regards humidity, whilst the average moisture of the air is very low, even near the sea, far lower than any climate to be found in Europe north of the Alps, the dryness does not equal that of Cannes; the changes from saturation to extreme dryness are also less rapid, owing, I believe, to our richer soil and the abundance of trees. This fact is an advantage to newly arrived invalids, who have not been previously acclimatised, as the sudden changes from a humid atmosphere to a condition of extreme dryness are a fruitful cause of severe irritation of the mucous membrane, and even of the skin.

"In conclusion, I may say, from a considerable personal experience, that whilst less stimulant and exciting than either Nice or Cannes, the climate of Bordighera is far more bracing than that of Mentone; and perhaps, allowing for the differences caused by a different aspect, approaches more nearly to that of its neighbour, San Remo.

"With these general characters, with a good water supply and at present a scattered population, the place is an exceptional residence for almost any cases marked by chronic degeneration of tissue. Chronic bronchitis, asthma dependent upon the former disorder or upon disordered digestion, phthisis of a non-febrile type, exhaustion from over work, nervous debility, anemia, chronic Bright's disease, chronic rheumatism, gout, and the varied forms of long-continued disease which affect the mucous membrane, are all likely to derive more or less

benefit from a winter's residence; and I should like to say a strong word in favour of the remarkable effects produced by this climate in every case of diabetes which has come under my notice.

"Such a work as the present is not, however, the place in which to dilate upon subjects which I hope to have the opportunity of bringing before the members of my own profession upon some future occasion. The information contained in this work will be a sufficient guide to those physicians who may wish to select a southern residence for their patients; and I would advise all non-medical readers to avoid acting upon their own impulses in the choice of a winter residence, and to consult one or other of the numerous branch of physicians who possess practical acquaintance with the merits of the multitudinous health resorts which are daily being pressed into notice upon the Continent, many upon the slenderest evidence, and others apparently upon no other grounds than the well-being of hotel-keepers."

Travellers from northern Europe who arrive for the first time on the Riviera not unfrequently lack the necessary knowledge which would enable them to place themselves under the most favourable conditions for a residence in this climate. I will therefore add a few words of advice to the visitor who comes to us an invalid, and is thinking of passing a winter on our coast.

1st. *Do not forget that you are still in Europe,* and in a climate which is no warmer than that of Canada, save by reason of its sheltered position and its proximity to a sea whose waters enjoy an unusually high temperature. Do not then expect from the climate more than it is able to give you—that is, *lovely weather* rather than sub-tropical heat.

2nd. *Do not keep your apartments too warm.* Nothing is more dangerous for a delicate person than sudden transitions from heat to cold. In the damp and cold climates of Northern Europe, it is necessary that the interior of the house be kept warm, and one is therefore exposed to the danger of facing a very much lower tem-

perature on going out into the open air, but in the south it is possible to avoid a change as disagreeable as dangerous. From the moment that the rays of the sun fall on your apartment, its temperature is naturally raised to about 54° Fahr.; it is better, therefore, to content yourself with a fire in the evening only, when you have come in for good.

3rd. *Do not be out after the dew has begun to fall*; that is, for half an hour before, until two hours after sunset. Later in the evening you may go out with impunity, as the temperature rises several degrees.

4th. *Always take your walks in the morning.* Invalids too often bring with them to the Riviera the habits and customs of more temperate latitudes, one of which is taking their usual walks *after* luncheon—that is, between two and four o'clock. These happen, however, to be precisely the hours when the wind is most to be feared. The blusterous winds which blow from the east, west, and south-west seldom get up (except during tempestuous periods) before eleven o'clock, but then invariably increase in force after mid-day. Above all, then, we advise a choice of the calm hours of the early morning, say between nine and eleven, for the daily constitutional.

5th. *Do not wrap too warmly.* In these sheltered places on which the sun shines so powerfully, there is a great tendency to perspire freely, and especially if too warmly clad. Along the Riviera coast then, it is wiser to accustom the body, both in the open air as well as in doors, to a lower temperature, and it is found by experience that this can be done without risk.

6th. *Do not leave your winter quarters too early in the spring.* A large number of our winter visitors turn again

northwards during the month of May, and by doing so, not unfrequently run the risk of losing much of the benefit they may have received from their winter in the south.

The summer of Northern Europe has not commenced in May; the temperature is still low and the winds, as a rule, blowing keenly from the north-east, at best a modified March. The month of June even leaves much to be desired, above all by those who have rendered themselves especially sensitive to damp and cold by a residence where the climate is particularly warm and dry. On the other hand, on this coast, June is one of the most delightful months of the year; it is characterised by lovely days of moderate warmth and cool nights, and frequent showers which preserve the luxuriant vegetation of the spring. The time of intense dryness, when this coast is alone disagreeable, begins about midsummer, or sometimes later, and ends about the 15th of September.

CHAPTER VI.

PRACTICAL HINTS TO ENGLISH RESIDENTS IN ITALY.

Number of foreigners in Italy—Peculiar difficulties encountered by the English—General state of legislation and administration—The progress of twenty years—Public administration—Property—Mortgages—Taxation—Leases and tenants—Wills and successions—Banking and sundries.

FEW countries are frequented by strangers to the same extent as Italy. The climate, the natural beauties of the landscape, the historical associations connected with the land of Cæsar and Dante, and the magnificent monuments

of classic times and mediæval art, are all attractions of the highest order and which draw together in the

"... bel paese
che l'Apennin parte e il mar circonda e l'Alpe,"

a motley crowd of valetudinarians, antiquarians, artists and pleasure-seekers of all classes.

The number of foreigners (*stranieri*) established in Italy is surprising;* it amounts to one-fifth per cent. of the entire population. According to the census of 1st January, 1882, these foreigners were divided as follows:—

Austrians	15,790
Swiss	12,104
French	10,781
British	7,402
Germans	5,234
Russians	1,387
Greeks	1,212
Spaniards	922
Turks	601
Belgians	583
Swedes and Norwegians	441
Hungarians	302
Dutch	204
Danes	168
North Americans (U.S.)	1,286
South Americans and Mexicans	906
Other nationalities	633
Total	59,956

The large numbers of Austrians and Swiss are principally composed of the labouring classes; the French are chiefly

* The significations of *straniero* and *forestiere* are exactly the opposite to those of the corresponding words in English. A *straniero* is a foreigner to the country, a *forestiere* a stranger to the place.

shopkeepers, engineers, and men otherwise engaged in business: hence the largest proportion of those foreigners with private means residing in Italy is supplied by the British empire; and to these 7402 permanent residents we must add the thousands of health-seekers and tourists who flock into Italy every autumn. Switzerland, during the summer months, will doubtless show a larger number of tourists in proportion to the extent of the country, certainly not of residents.

But of all people who settle in Italy, the English stand most in need of practical information. Others—the French, for instance—find not only a language more akin to their own, but a legislation and mode of doing business of every kind which do not differ essentially from what they have in their own country. But to the Englishman all is new. The language is radically different from his own; the laws, the organisation of the various public departments, the system of taxation, and the proceedings necessary for the transaction of business of all kinds, are totally at variance with what is familiar to him at home.

Of course the first impulse of Englishmen under such circumstances is to criticise and grumble at what they do not understand, and to expatiate in glowing colours on the superior way of managing everything in the British Islands. Indeed, I have often been amused at this tendency in would-be English proprietors in Italy, who, after having ventured for the first time across the "silver streak," come to ask for information, say, how to buy a piece of land, without running the risk of paying for it twice over. When one begins to explain the admirable clearness of the law on property, and the very simple formalities connected with its transfer, a man will often

fire up at hearing barbarously sounding terms which he does not understand, and then, after branching off into a long dissertation on how the same thing would be done in England or Scotland, finally leave the office no wiser than when he entered it.

In the French edition of this book I did not deem it necessary, for the reason stated above, to devote any space to such matters; but the case is different when writing for the English, who are generally compelled to glean the information they require in a language they understand but imperfectly, and from more or less reliable sources, such as hotel and shopkeepers; or by applying at public offices where they rarely meet with more than what a well-known writer so happily calls "the bamboozling smell of how not to do it." Hence I feel sure that a few practical hints to intending or present residents in Italy will prove a boon to many.

But let me first offer a few words on the general state of legislation and public administration.

In the days of the fallen despots, when *Bomba* and *Bombalino* could allow the *lazzaroni* to sack Naples with impunity, when *Canapone* could, without blushing, order the artillery of the *Fortezza da Basso* to bombard the town at Florence—when, in a word, climate, art and ruins, with cheating, highway robbery, dirty inns and slow travelling, were the only attractions which Italy could offer to the tourist, and the best eulogy that could be pronounced on her was to call her *la Terra dei morti*—defective legislation, corrupt administration, iniquitous taxation, and all the evils of bad government were naturally the order of the day. But it is important not to confound the *past* with the *present* state of the country.

An eminent writer remarked lately, that Italy has done in twenty years what England did in six hundred. This—and it is true to a great extent—is of course less owing to anything peculiar in the character of the people than to the rapidity with which events take place in the nineteenth century, aided by the powerful patriotic feeling which arose with the peaceful and glorious revolution of 1860.

All matters connected with legislation, public administration and instruction, taxation, &c., are now organised in Italy upon a most satisfactory footing. It has indeed been said that the State is in advance of the people; that the new legislation and administrative principles are beyond the comprehension of the ignorant inhabitants, degraded and demoralised as they have been by centuries of tyranny, and that consequently the laws fail to work well. Such is truly the case in the southern provinces; not so in the northern, especially in the highly civilised and prosperous district of Liguria.

There everything proceeds in the most orderly manner; and those who contemplate settling in this country may do so unhesitatingly, as they will find everything relating to the transaction of business just as satisfactory, and, I may add, in many respects much easier, than they would at home, if they will only set about what they want to do in the right way.

I now proceed to examine the different questions connected with business, which I will class under the following heads:—Public administrations, Property, Mortgages, Taxation, Wills and Successions, Banking and Sundries.

STATE ORGANISATIONS FOR THE PUBLIC SERVICE.

Local government in Italy is organised as follows:

The country is divided into provinces, each of which has a Prefect (*Prefetto*) residing in the chief town (*capo-luogo*); these are again divided into *Circondari*, presided over by Sub-prefects (*Sottoprefetti*). Each province has a Provincial Council (*Consiglio Provinciale*), elected by the people, which holds one or two sessions every year, to discuss provincial interests. This body appoints a permanent commission of three or more of its members (*Deputazione Provinciale*), for the dispatch of ordinary business.

The communes or townships (*Comuni*) are administered by a mayor (*Sindaco*) and a town council (*Consiglio Comunale*), the number of whose members is in proportion to the population: at Bordighera we have fifteen; this council, as in the preceding case, appoints a permanent commission (*Giunta*), composed of members (*Assessori*) who are authorised to undertake the duties of the mayor when absent from any cause. The crown appoints the mayor, choosing him among the elected *Assessori*; the appointment is for five years. One fifth of the council is renewed each year by election. No deliberation of a communal council is valid unless ratified by the Provincial Deputation.

Communes are grouped for judiciary, military, and other purposes in "cantons" (*mandamenti*), having a judge, a *Conciliator*, a tax-gatherer, and other functionaries in common.

The judge of the *mandamento* passes sentence for minor penal offences, like a magistrate in England, and hears civil cases in which the interest involved is not above

1500 francs. The *Conciliator* hears only those not exceeding thirty francs.

At the *Capo Luogo di Circondario* there is a *Correctional tribunal* for higher penal offences, and at the chief town of the province a *Civil tribunal* for civil cases of all kinds, and a *Commercial tribunal*, whose judges are merchants or manufacturers elected by their colleagues, and which hears all cases in which commercial interests are involved. The *Court of Assizes* also holds sessions once or twice a year in the chief towns for trial by jury. Appeals from all these tribunals are allowed to the *Courts of Appeal* and thence to those of *Cassation*.

The police service in Italy is effected by three distinct corps: 1st, the *Carabineers* (*Reali Carabinieri*), a military police, both foot and mounted; 2nd, the police properly so-called (*Guardie di Pubblica Sicurezza*); these are attached to courts of law and prisons, and preserve order in the streets of large towns: the detectives belong to this corps; 3rd, the local police (*Guardie di Città*) supported by the municipalities of large towns to supplement the other corps for street service. But in small places, as at Bordighera, the whole service is effected by the carabineers and one or two *Guardie Urbane*.

I may remark here that the terms police (*polizia*) and gendarme (*gendarme*), having become odious to the public ear through their association with the tyranny of past times, have been completely banished from the official vocabulary of Italy, and replaced by those of public security (*Sicurezza Pubblica*) and carabineers (*Carabinieri*).

Public instruction in Italy is organised on a principle which differs widely from that of France. The machinery is as follows.

Four classes of elementary schools, viz 1st and 2nd, to be found in almost every village; these are obligatory by a recent law, which however is not as yet applied as rigorously as it should be; 3rd and 4th, existing in all towns and most chief places (*capi luoghi*) of cantons, as at Bordighera. Besides these official schools, there are infant asylums (*asili infantili*), mixed schools for small children of both sexes, and adult evening schools, all supported by voluntary contributions with help from the communes.

I should remark here that whereas in other countries the first class in a school is the highest,* and consequently the last through which the pupil passes, in Italy the opposite, and perhaps more rational system, has been adopted, the classes being numbered in the order in which they are gone through from the lowest to the highest.

After the elementary classes the pupil has before him two distinct lines of study, the technical and the classical; the former leading him through a series of special schools and colleges to the career of a civil engineer, to commercial and nautical life, to the army and navy, &c.; the latter through the gymnasium (*ginnasio*), the lyceum (*liceo*) and the university (*università*), to the professions of the bar, medicine, &c.

The chief occasions on which English residents and visitors are called upon to have dealings with the local authorities are the registration of births and deaths; marriages between British subjects being independent of the Italian laws.

All births must be registered within five days. The

* The author seems to have forgotten that in all the great public schools in England the numeration is the same as in Italy, the Upper Sixth being the highest.—A. C. D.

law requires the child to be presented at the communal office for the certification of the sex, but this can generally be avoided by a medical certificate from an Italian official physician, that of an English practitioner not being sufficient.

Deaths must be registered within twenty-four hours, before which lapse of time no body can be buried, except under peculiar circumstances. A medical certificate of the same description as above is necessary.

PROPERTY.

All property is freehold, at least in this part of Italy; the system of long or perpetual leases (*enfiteusi*) being confined to the central and southern provinces.

Land is generally sold by the square metre, or, in the olive woods of the less modernised part of the country, at so much a tree at a valuation. The title to ownership consists in the "transcription" (*trascrizione*) at the Office of Mortgages (*Conservazione delle Ipoteche*). At this office a register is kept in which an account is opened to every landowner, and in which land is transferred (*trascritto*) from one name to another upon presentation of a deed of sale, or of a will or other document showing that one person has inherited it from another. For the purpose of "transcription," land is described by (*a*) the names of the former owners, (*b*) the boundaries as expressed in deeds, (*c*) the official number it bears in the *catasto* or survey map of the country. Once the "transcription" is effected, the transfer is complete and definite.*

* The excellence of this simple and expeditious system is shown by it having been adopted in Canada, Australia, and, I believe, all the great British colonies.

Now, let us suppose that Mr. Smith is about to purchase a piece of land at Bordighera, and see how he should set about it.

Having agreed as to the price with the seller (and this he will prudently have done in writing), the first thing is to see how the property stands as to mortgages (for the nature of mortgages, see following page). For this purpose he must go to the *Uffizio delle Ipoteche* at San Remo, and ask to see the account of So-and-so. The register is public, but there is a charge of 50 centimes for each account one looks at.

Having satisfied himself on this point, the next thing is to send for a notary, who will write out the deed of conveyance (*contratto di vendita*) *currente calamo*, and attest the signatures of the parties, together with two witnesses.

If there are mortgages on the property, the mortgagees should be present and receive their money, otherwise the mortgages will remain on the land and run their course, the buyer, of course, retaining the amount. The deed must be registered at the *Ricevitoria del Registro* at Ventimiglia within twenty days of its date. This registration, for which a duty of forty-eight per thousand on the price is paid, does not effect the legality of the deed, being merely a matter of taxation. The "transcription" at San Remo, which implies the real transfer, is independent of registration.

The only other formality necessary is to communicate the deed to the office of the *Catasto* or survey, at the town-hall of Bordighera: this merely with a view to having the owner's name changed at the tax agency. I should add that these formalities, including the visit to the Office of

Mortgages at San Remo, are generally left to the notary.

The expense of conveyancing is considerable, and it falls entirely upon the purchaser. Including registration duty, as above, stamps, certificates, notary's fees, &c., it will generally amount to between six and seven per cent. of the sum paid. It is always preferable, when possible, to pay for land in cash on the signing of the deed, as a receipt signed at a later period is subject to a stamp duty, and, of course, a second fee to the notary. In the case of *houses*, furniture and other "movables" should be mentioned in the deed and quoted for their full value, as the registration duty on such articles is only twenty-four per thousand.

MORTGAGES.

These (*Ipoteche*) are loans, marriage settlements, or other moneys owing and charged upon landed property.

They are subject to the following legislation:—

No mortgage can have a duration of more than thirty years; at the expiration of this period, if not renewed, they fall void by limitation (*prescrizione*) or prescription, as it is called in Scotland.

Mortgages, to be legal, must be registered, subject to a duty of six per thousand, and "inscribed" (*iscritti*) on the property at the Office of Mortgages mentioned above. They affect only the property upon which they are charged, and they do so in the order of their "inscription."

An example will make this clear.

Mr. John Smith purchases a piece of land and builds a house upon it, but not having cash enough to cover the

expenses, which exceed his estimate by a long figure, he contracts two successive loans of, say, 1000*l.* each, with two different parties. These are duly "inscribed" as mortgages on the property. Now, let us suppose that at the term stipulated for refunding these mortgages, Mr. Smith does not fulfil his engagements, and fails to pay. His creditors now have the right to seize his house and land (not his furniture) and put them up for sale by auction. If the property sells for more than the 2000*l.* charged on it, Mr. Smith will receive the balance; but if it sells for less, say 1500*l.*, the mortgagee whose "inscription" bears the earliest date will get the whole of his money, the other creditor having to content himself with 500*l.*; nor can he touch any other property belonging to the debtor, not even if he had an estate worth a million of francs next door. From this the reader will clearly understand that, in the case of mortgages, the real debtor is the land they are charged upon, not the owner of it, and that in lending money on landed security it is always advisable to have a *first* mortgage.

TAXATION.

The equitable distribution of taxation, so that each citizen shall contribute to the expenses of the State in proportion to his income, is one of the most difficult problems of political economy. Theoretically speaking, this problem is at once solved by an *income-tax*, in the broadest acceptation of the term, everyone handing over to the State a certain percentage of his income, from whatever source it may be derived. But in practice the difficulties which beset the application of the principle are enormous. Hence have arisen the multifarious contrivances for taxation

which exist in different countries. In Italy the end has been attained by two distinct systems, direct and indirect taxation. Let us consider them successively.

Direct Taxation.—This is in fact but a subdivision of the income-tax into three heads, viz. on land (*terreni*), buildings (*fabbricati*), and income properly so called (*ricchezza mobile*).

The machinery provided for the collection of these taxes is as follows:—

The country is divided into districts (*circoscrizioni*), for each of which there is a tax-agent (*agente delle tasse*), and these are subdivided into groups (*consorzi*) consisting of several communes, each having a tax-gatherer (*esattore*). Our tax-agent resides at Ventimiglia, the tax-gatherer at Bordighera.

The business of the agent consists in taxing new buildings or fresh sources of income, the land-tax rarely varying.

He sets about it in the following way:—

When a new house is built, or a shop, manufactory, or other industrial establishment opened, the agent serves a notice upon the owner in which he informs him that he has estimated the income supposed to be derived from his house or establishment, at a certain figure. The proprietor generally thinks this figure too high, and he has twenty days to appeal, by a petition (*ricorso*) on stamped paper, to the Commission of the group (*Commissione consorziale*), stating his reasons for demanding a reduction. This commission is a body elected by the councils of all the communes of the group, and its members being tax-payers themselves, their tendency naturally is to cut down the agent's figures.

If neither party (proprietor or agent) are satisfied with the decision, they both have twenty days to appeal to the Provincial Commission, sitting at the chief town, and after that there is a third appeal, in the same way, to a Central Commission at Rome. However, in practice the proceedings rarely go beyond the first appeal.

The factor (*aliquota*) used for obtaining the amount to be paid, is, for the income-tax, 13 francs 20 cents; for the other two, 30 per cent. of the taxable income (*reddito imponibile*) upon which the parties agree. Of course, the gist of the question lies in this figure: what proportion does it bear to the *real* income? But this is rather a dangerous question to treat in print; suffice it to say that everyone naturally does his utmost to get his figure fixed as low as possible.

The functions of the tax-gatherer consist merely in collecting the taxes according to the rolls (*ruoli*) which are transmitted to him by the agent. They are payable by sixths, in bi-monthly instalments, or the whole in June, under penalty of a fine of 4 per cent. The above factors are fixed by Act of Parliament, and vary in slight proportions from time to time. They are subject also to be increased and even doubled by the communes, under certain special circumstances, of which hereafter.

Indirect Taxation.—These taxes consist of custom-house duties, the monopoly of the sale of salt and tobacco, stamps, registration and succession duties, and, above all, town duties, or *dazi comunali*, the *octrois* of France.

Town duties are the most inconvenient taxes for the public, as they entail a repetition of that most objectionable institution, the Custom House, throughout the interior of the country, at the gate of every city, and

they have also the disadvantage (or advantage, according to some) of encouraging building outside rather than inside towns, leading thus to the formation of extensive suburbs inhabited by the labouring classes. But on the other hand, they offer the advantage of being a most equitably distributed tax, as they are necessarily paid in a fair proportion by all consumers.

The *dazio di consumo* or *dazio comunale* is divided into two classes, pertaining to the State and to the communes. The Government duty applies merely to wine, beer, and spirituous liquors, and it is levied on all the communes throughout the kingdom indiscriminately by direct taxation on the licensed vendors of spirits, like an English excise duty, in those communes which have no *dazio* of their own, and hence form the class of *comuni aperti;* and by a sum or *canone* paid annually by the commune to the State in those which, having an *octroi*, form that of *comuni chiusi.*

Once a town has agreed with the Government as to the sum to be paid, it is free to tax, subject to ministerial approbation, every kind of merchandise which is introduced into its territory. At Bordighera we pay *dazio* on eatables and liquors of all descriptions, furniture, building materials—almost everything, in a word, except tissues.

The following extract from the tariff will give the reader an idea of the duty on a few important articles:—

	Fr.
Wine, per 100 litres	5
Brandy, per bottle	0·27
Fresh meat, per 100 kilos.	9
Flour, per 100 kilos.	1·50
Butter „	7
Sugar „	5
Poultry „	10

	Fr.
Coffee, per 100 kilos.	5
Tea ,, ...	100
Coal and charcoal, per 100 kilos. ..	0·50
Lime, per 100 kilos.	0·20
Furniture, metal, per 100 kilos.	3
,, walnut ,, ...	5
,, mahogany ,, ...	8
Pianos, per 100 kilos.	8
Gunpowder ,, ...	12
Soap ,, ...	3
Dynamite ,, ...	20
Stearic candles, per 100 kilos.	15

The *dazi comunali* are not collected in Italy, as are the *octrois* of France, by direct administration for the account of the town; they are, with few exceptions, farmed out by auction for periods of five years, to contractors, who pay whatever the sum may be, and then make the most profit they can. At Bordighera, as may naturally be supposed, the figure at which the *dazio* is let has steadily increased at all the recent auctions, at the following rate:—

	Fr.
1871	14,000
1876	28,000
1880	38,000

The *canone* paid to the State being 6000 francs, the commune at present derives a net income from the *dazio* of 32,000 francs = 1280*l.* per annum, which sum will doubtless rise considerably at the coming auction in December 1884.

The *dazio* is the main source of revenue for Italian communes. Bordighera possesses several others producing small sums, such as the rents paid for the occupation of the *terreni arenili* (for which see Part II., chapter XIII.);

those for the use of four olive mills, and for the working of the stone quarries, which are farmed out on the same principle as the *dazio*; sales of timber on the Montenero, a pine forest of over six hundred acres in extent; and a small percentage on the direct Government taxes.

Under ordinary circumstances communes are expected to meet their expenditure with resources of the above description. They can, however, under special circumstances, increase, and even double the direct taxes. This is chiefly done to defray the expense of opening roads. They can also put on special local taxes or rates, such as the tax on hearths (*fuocatico*) or so much for every household, the tax on families (*tassa di famiglia*) or so much per member of each family, taxes on dogs, servants, &c. These are generally applied to the payment of interest and reimbursement of loans.

LEASES AND TENANTS.

Tenants of furnished apartments pay no direct taxes whatever; those of unfurnished apartments are expected to pay the local rates when any exist.

Furnished apartments are always let for the season, or from 15th October to 31st May, rent being payable half on entrance, or not later than 1st November, and half on 31st January.

Rents for unfurnished apartments are payable in advance by three or six months, according to agreement.

Leases are generally made for one, three, six, or nine years. Sub-letting for both furnished and unfurnished houses is always legal, when not forbidden by a clause in the lease.

WILLS AND SUCCESSIONS.

No one may bequeath by will, away from his direct heirs, more than one-half of what he possesses, if he has children, and two-thirds if he has no children, but parents or one of them living (Civil Code, art. 805 and 807).

In the case of persons dying intestate, property goes to the child or children, or in default of such to brothers and sisters, parents or uncles, and in equal shares to all of each degree of relationship.

Succession, whether by will or otherwise, must be notified (*denunziato*) to the Receiver of Registry (*Ricevitore del Registro*) at Ventimiglia within three months of the decease, under pain of a heavy penalty. The duty is regulated by the following scale:—

Children and parents	1·44 per cent.
Husband and wife	3·60 ,,
Brothers	6 ,,
Uncles and nephews	7·20 ,,
Cousins	9·60 ,,
Other relations to the tenth degree	10·80 ,,
Non-relations	12 ,,

English proprietors wishing to bequeath their property in Italy otherwise than to their direct heirs in equal shares, should do so by a special Italian will, as the proving and registration of a foreign will give rise to long formalities and useless expense.

I have often been asked how an Englishman owning property in Italy can bequeath it to any one person, say to one of his children, in spite of art. 805 of the Civil Code? All he has to do is to make an Italian will leaving the property to that son, and adding, if he likes,

that his other children are provided for in their own country. No question will be raised. In fact, any will, however irregular in the eyes of the law, can be executed, as long as no interested party comes forward to oppose it.

Wills are of two kinds: the secret will (*testamento olografo*), which must be entirely written, dated, and subscribed by the testator, without witnesses, and the public will (*testamento per atto di notaio*), which must be signed before two notaries, or one notary and four witnesses.

BANKING AND SUNDRIES.

As long as the forcible currency of bank notes existed in Italy, i. e. from May 1866 to April 1883, gold was at a premium, which rose on one or two occasions as high as 20 per cent. till the spring of 1881, when the passing of the law providing for a return to payments in specie within two years caused it to fall suddenly to between 1 and 2 per cent.

In the days of 10 per cent. premium, exchange on foreign countries was high and very variable. Cheques on London were often cashed at as much as 28 francs to the pound sterling, This is now at an end, and exchange is at par, save the trifling rise and fall occasioned by the ordinary fluctuations of offer and demand.

The pound sterling, generally considered, for round numbers' sake, as 25 francs, is in reality worth Fr. 25·221, gold for gold, hence when exchange is at 25·20 it may be said to be at par. It will probably continue to oscillate between the extreme limits of 25·10 and 25·30.

The most advantageous method of transferring money from England to Italy, is by cheques on London, circular notes for mere travellers, and private cheques for those

who, being residents, are known to their bankers. Cheques on any place out of London are subject to a loss of a quarter per cent. Bank of England notes are worth less than cheques, on account of the risk attendant on their transmission, and English gold is subject to a still heavier loss.

Servants are engaged and paid by the month; they can, however, leave at a week's notice.

In giving receipts for money it is always well to put a stamp (*marca da bollo*) of five centimes on them and sign across it. This is merely a matter of taxation, as the presence or absence of the stamp in no way affects the validity of the receipt. But those who sign receipts without stamps are subject, if it is discovered, to a heavy fine, the party getting the receipt going scot-free. Hence it follows that one may always take a receipt, but should be careful not to give one, without a stamp.

Drafts and bills must be presented for payment on the day they fall due. If not paid they can be protested the day following, and not later than the second day. Bills falling due on Sundays or recognised holidays are payable the day after. The holidays recognised by the State are the following eleven:—New Year's Day, Epiphany (6th Jan.), Ascension, Corpus Domini, St. Peter and St. Paul (29th June), Assumption (15th August), Nativity (8th Sept.), All Saints (1st Nov.), Conception (8th Dec.), Christmas (25th Dec.), and the local patron saint, who for Bordighera is St. Ampelio (14th May).

PART II.

LOCAL HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

PREHISTORIC AND BARBAROUS TIMES.

First attempts at colonisation—Origin of the Ligurians—Foundation of Nice and Marseilles—Annexation of Liguria by the Romans—Hannibal amongst the Alps—The *Lacs des Merveilles.*

LIKE the rest of Italy, the Ligurian coast was colonised by wandering tribes from Asia Minor and Greece. These tribes overran an uninhabited country, where they chose sites for their colonies as inclination or fancy prompted them, establishing themselves, without doubt, exactly as emigrants have done in all times, viz. where the climate and topographical conditions most resembled the country they had left behind, and where they could consequently most nearly follow the agricultural and pastoral occupations or any others to which their traditions led them.

The first inhabitants of Italy are known to us from the earliest historical days under the names of Pelasgi and Ligurians. These last originated probably in some of the mountainous countries of Asia Minor, and fixed themselves in Italy in the valleys of the Apennines and the Alps, and in the more undulating portions of Lombardy and Piedmont. They occupied the sea-coast of Gaul and Italy from

the Rhone as far as the Arno, a part of upper Italy and the coasts of the Adriatic, where we find traces of them in the name of *Liburnia*, which is another form of *Liguria*; whilst without doubt they spread themselves also along the entire chain of the Apennines into the very heart of the peninsula.

Virgil mentions the Ligurians amongst those who gave a favourable reception to Æneas on his landing. In the list of the tribes which united with the Trojans in their conflict with the Rutuli, we find the reference:—

> "Non ego te, Ligurum ductor, fortissime bello,
> transierim, Cycne . . ." *

But this people were held in very slight esteem by the Romans. They seem indeed always to have borne a bad reputation for intrigue and duplicity, and this is shown us very clearly by some further passages in the Æneid, where Cycnus, son of Stenelus or Aunus, the king of the Ligurians (just referred to) is painted in colours far from flattering to that people:—

> "Apenninicolæ bellator filius Auni,
> haud Ligurum extremus dum fallere fata sinebant."†—
> *Æneid*, Book XI., line 700.

* *Æneid*, Book X. line 185:—
"Nor must I omit thee, O Cycnus, most valiant leader of the Ligurians in war." In Anthon's *Virgil* the reading is "transierim, Cinyra . . ." Cycnus was a monarch of the Ligurians, fondly attached to Phaeton, and who pined away in sorrow at the latter's untimely end until he was changed into a swan.—A. C. D.

† ". . . . The warlike son of the Apennine-haunting Aunus, not the last of the Ligurians, as long as the fates permitted deceiving." Anthon adds in a note, "The Ligurians had a very bad reputation for treachery and fraud."—A. C. D.
Dryden's translation of this verse is also peculiarly severe upon the Ligurian race:
"A true Ligurian, born to cheat."

> "Vane Ligus, frustraque animis elate superbis,
> nequidquam patrias tenasti lubricus artes;
> nec fraus te incolumem fallaci perferet Auno."*—
> *Æneid*, Book XI., line 715.

The Ligurians, no doubt, were essentially a race of mountaineers; the name even seems to have had an identical meaning and served to distinguish the inhabitants of the Alps and the Apennines from the Pelasgi or inhabitants of the plains. However, though this derivation of the word is generally admitted, its etymology is far from being clearly established.

According to some, *ligur* and *ligus* are derived from two words of the ancient language of the Osci, *lix*, *licis*, water (from whence the Latin *lixatus*, boiled), and *gur* or *gora*, high or mountainous. The Ligurians, therefore, would be the "*Mountaineers by the Sea Coast.*" According to others, these words come from "Lycia" or "Milyas," the name of a little mountainous country in the south of Asia Minor, colonised in very ancient times by the Greeks, and from whence the Ligurians may have migrated. The fact related by Herodotus, that a tribe of the Lycians bore the name of "*Termilii*," seems to give weight to this hypothesis, for we meet again a similar name in *Ligures Intemelii* or *Intermelii*.† But we must not attach too much importance to a detail of this kind, bearing in mind that a great number of names from Asia Minor and Greece are found

* "'Vain fool and coward!' said the lofty maid;
'caught in the train which thou thyself hast laid!
on others practise thy Ligurian arts:
thin stratagems and tricks of little hearts
are lost on me: nor shalt thou safe retire
with vaunting lies to thy fallacious sire!'"
DRYDEN'S *Translation.*

† Celesia: Dell' antichissimo Idioma dei Liguri.

reproduced in Italy, owing to the fact of all the early colonies being of Greek origin.

There is, however, another somewhat plausible and attractive derivation, although utterly unsupported by proof, and that is one which derives *ligus* from the Greek adjective having the same spelling. Those who hold this theory are influenced, in fact, by the relation which exists between *ligur* and *ligus*, and λιγύς and λιγυρός, which is the more remarkable, as the two words present the same change of termination. But λιγύς signifies *clear, harmonious, shrill*, when speaking of sounds, and one cannot help asking *how* this adjective could become the name of a people? However it is possible, I do not say probable, that the first chief of the tribe was distinguished by a strong, harmonious voice, and that he received in consequence the surname of λιγύς; it is possible, also, the first hordes of the Ligurians who established themselves in the mountainous countries adopted the *horn* for the transmission of their signals from one height to another, and that the surrounding people gave them the name of λίγυρες, or, as we should translate it, "*Horn-blowers.*"

However imaginative or even fantastical this view may appear, we must at least acknowledge that it is singularly confirmed by a quaint custom of the modern inhabitants of the Alps and the Apennines, which consists in awakening the echoes of the mountains, on the eve of St. John the Baptist, by blowing *cow-horns!* the prolonged and monotonous sounds from which are answered from one village to another, and from the valleys to the heights. This custom, which has no apparent motive or any Christian or Pagan tradition to explain it, may perchance be a reminiscence of the national horns

which gave the Ligurians their name in the earliest days of their history.

It is not possible for the historian to make any but the slightest conjectures as to the primitive inhabitants who occupied this coast *before* the Ligurian immigration. Bone caverns undoubtedly exist in this part of Italy, a human skeleton having been discovered by Dr. Rivière some few years ago in one of the caves of the Rochers-Rouges near Mentone, which was removed to Paris. *If* these remains were well authenticated, they would prove that this country was inhabited in the Stone Age; but it is at least probable that so bright and attractive a coast, when joined to so charming and perfect a climate, would not be long in finding favour in the eyes of the very earliest colonists.

Some remains of Cyclopean or Pelasgic constructions are found occasionally along the mountain range, notably on the plateau which forms the summit of Mont Agel above Monaco; and the old tradition has it that the mythological explorer Hercules, after having forced the passage of the Maritime Alps, founded the town of Monaco, which took the name of *Portus Herculis Monœci;* Monœcus, μονοίκος (signifying *an isolated house*) very well expresses the first impression of the Rock of Monaco as seen from the surrounding heights; but it is probable that the massive and enormous construction on the Agel was really the primitive *Monœcus,* mentioned also as the *Aggeres Alpini* by several Latin authors:

> "... Aggeribus alpinis atque arce Monœci
> Descendens."
>
> VIRGIL, *Æneid*, Book VI.

"Descending from the rugged Alps and from the rock of Monaco."

At the dawn of historic times the Ligurian coast was inhabited by two peoples, entirely different from each other, although equally of Greek origin, and speaking without doubt dialects derived from the same language.

One of these, the Ligurians, divided into tribes, mainly occupied the mountains, but they possessed also establishments on the seashore. The three most important of these primitive ports were (1) that of the Ligures Intemelii, which the Romans called Alpium Intemelium, or Intemelium of the Hills, now called *Ventimiglia*; (2) that of the Ligures Ingauni, which became Alpium Ingaunon, the modern *Albenga*; and (3) that of the Ligures Genuati, now the important city of *Genoa*.

The other, the Phocaeans, a warlike but also a trading people emigrated from the mountainous country which surrounds Mount Parnassus, had thriving colonies both in Corsica and on the coast of Provence, on which latter they founded Marseilles about 600 years B.C. They have equally the credit of founding Nice (from *νίκη*, victory), but the archæologists are not agreed upon the period of this event. According, however, to the most generally received opinion, this town was not founded until the year 350 B.C., and then by colonists from the Phocaean settlement at Marseilles; but, according to others, we must go back to the year B.C. 536, and seek the origin of Nice in a migration of the inhabitants of *Alalia*, a powerful Phocaean colony on the north-west coast of Corsica (near the site of the modern town of Algajola), who, harassed by the incursions of the Carthaginians, decided to change their country.*

* *Mémoire sur les Origines de Nice*, a paper read by M. Brun, architect, at the Scientific Congress of France, held at Nice in 1866.

Whatever may be truth in this respect, Nice was a dependent of Marseilles at the time when the Romans first came into direct contact with the Phocaean republic. Similarity of race, language, and customs helped inevitably towards a fusion of the two colonies, but above all the presence of a common enemy, the Ligurians, who saw with anything but a favourable eye these strangers establishing themselves on their coast. This latter people struggled long and courageously against the stream of the Roman power, the first influx of which took place in the year 237 B.C. This was under the command of Consul Sempronius Graccus and his successor Cornelius Lentulus, who, according to certain historians, massacred 23,000 Ligurians and took 5000 prisoners; but these figures are probably exaggerated.

In 234 B.C. Fabius Maximus attacked the Eastern Ligurians, and subdued all the country between the Arno and the Magra, whilst a few years later, viz. 210 B.C., Scipio Africanus, returning to Spain at the head of a powerful force to attack Asdrubal (the second Punic war), put into Portus Herculis (or Monaco) or perhaps into Villa Franca. The view of the smiling hills of Liguria no doubt excited the covetousness of his troops at that time, for not long afterwards (200 years B.C.) the republic entered upon a war of extermination against the Ligurians. The Consuls Appius Claudius and Marcus Sempronius gained a series of bloody victories in this campaign, and erected a fortress on Mont Magliocca, above Ventimiglia, whose ruins still bear the name of *Castel d'Appio*. Rome had, however, another and more important motive in attacking these mountaineers. Mago, brother of Hannibal, after having sacked Genoa in 204 B.C., landed in Liguria at the head

of an army, and established his head-quarters at Savo (or Savona). He occupied the country for about two years, and the Ingauni (or inhabitants of the town now called Albenga) declared themselves his allies; but he retired when hostilities were commenced against him by the Romans.

This desperate struggle was not ended until the Ligurians made their definite submission to the Consul C. Papirius Carbo in the year 163 B.C. They continued, however, to war against the Marseillais until 153 B.C., when the Phocaean Republic was compelled to invoke against them the aid and arms of Rome. This measure, whether dictated by imminent danger or by a clever calculation, had, as an effect, the preservation of the autonomy of the Phocaean Republic by making Rome its ally, and later on, the opening to Cæsar's victorious legions of the coast road to Gaul.

In the year 118 B.C. Liguria was finally annexed to the Roman territory, and constituted a province, the prefect of which resided at "*Cemenelium*,"* a town probably founded a little before, and perhaps by the Consul Carbo, on the high land about a mile and a quarter to the north of Nice. This locality bears even at the present day the name of Cimiez, but it only preserves, as a memento of its once having been the chief city of a Roman province, a rather small but well-preserved amphitheatre and some insignificant ruins.

The only remarkable event connected with Roman history in which Liguria played any part, prior to its annexation, other than those of which I am about to speak, was the passage of Hannibal, about the year 218 B.C.

* Κέμενλεον in Strabo. We may infer that this word is a contraction of κέμεν ὕλιον, town of Monts Cémènes, Cémène being a word of Celtic origin.

It was after the taking of Saguntum, which led to the breaking out of the second Punic war, that Hannibal conceived the daring project of attacking the Romans in their own country, and moving his army by land.

He crossed the Pyrenees, overran Gascony and Languedoc, passed the Rhone, and penetrated into Italy by crossing the Alps, but we are ignorant at *what* point he effected the passage over the mountains.

The most generally accepted view, however, is that which attributes to him the same route followed since by Charlemagne, Charles V., Francis I., Napoleon, and all the other conquerors of Italy, viz. either by the Mont Cenis or the Great St. Bernard. But one is permitted to have doubts on this point.

Those armies which invaded Italy in the Middle Ages and in modern times all came from the *north*, and they naturally approached the mountains by the most convenient and best-known valleys, and at the same time those nearest to their point of departure. Hannibal, on the contrary, came from the *south*. He had passed the Rhone in the plains of Lower Languedoc, to the south of the Cévennes; and such being the case, one naturally asks why he should march up to the interior of transalpine Gaul in order to make a circuit by Savoy or Switzerland? Is it not much more natural to suppose that he would follow the coast until he came upon the broad valleys of the Var or the Roya, which would conduct him, the first by the Tinée over the Col de *Frema-Muorta*, and the second over the Col di Tenda?

This was evidently the shortest and most practical route for him; for, given an utter absence of roads or even of paths, the easiest and most direct mode of getting from

the south of Gaul into Upper Italy was, without doubt, by the valley of the Var and its affluent the Tinée, the Col de *Frema-Muorta*, and the valley of Gesso (Valdieri), to the plains of Piedmont, whilst the valley of the Roya, the Col di Tenda, and the descent by the gorge of Limonetto into the valley of Vermenagna, offer facilities hardly less convenient.

Some may, however, object that the presence of P. Cornelius Scipio (father of Africanus) at the mouths of the Rhone, at the head of an army of 24,000 men, who had been sent to contest his passage, would be sufficient to decide Hannibal to turn away from the coast. But this objection falls to the ground when we remember that Scipio never came across the Carthaginians in Provence at all; for at the very moment he had made arrangements to disembark his troops, he learnt that Hannibal had crossed the Rhone, and was already marching towards the Alps; so there was nothing left for the former but to follow him as speedily as possible.

Whatever may be the actual fact,* we may consider this at least as certain, that at any rate *one* division of the Carthaginian army, if not Hannibal himself, passed by the valley of Tenda. The memory of the great commander still remains engraven in the popular traditions, just as it did in the neighbourhood of Barletta, where was fought the battle of Cannæ (which even now bears the name of *Campo di Sangue*, or Field of Blood);

* To those who feel an interest on this point, viz. the *exact* route taken, it may be worth while suggesting that they should get a good map of Southern Europe, and finding Saguntum, now the modern town of Murviedro, on the sea coast of Catalonia, which was the point of Hannibal's departure, carefully study the two routes, and having read the arguments in favour of either, endeavour to form an opinion for themselves.—A. C. D.

even now in the valley of the Roya the mountaineers still recount to each other, as they watch their grazing flocks, the passage of the African legions, and speak with reverence and respect the name of that great leader.

The valley of Tenda, or rather one of its offshoots, presents a natural phenomenon which for a long time was considered a proof that the Carthaginians passed along this road.

Several little lakes occupy the bottom of an amphitheatre, which terminates a secondary gorge, some hours above the ancient convent of St. Dalmas. The perpendicular rocks which surround this amphitheatre are covered with extraordinary figures which are thought to have been carved by the hand of man. Nearly all the historians and archæologists of the country have pointed out these designs as hieroglyphics engraved by Hannibal's soldiers; but recent investigations have unmistakably shown that these outlines left on the smooth surface of the rock were formed by the flints which a glacier dragged with it as it progressed century after century down the valley.

The *Lacs des Merveilles* then are nothing more than a geological curiosity; for it is indeed too improbable to believe that the Carthaginians, with the army of Scipio in their rear, would waste their time cutting out figures on the rocks of a hill side, difficult of access and some distance from their route!

CHAPTER II.

THE ROMAN PROVINCE.

Administrative organisation—The Aurelian Way: its construction and its route—The trophy of Augustus—Building of Turbia—Geographical frontier—Roman ruins in the neighbourhood.

After the annexation of Liguria to the territory of the Republic in the year 118 B.C., the passage of the Roman legions who entered into Southern Gaul, to take part in the campaign against the Cimbri and the Teutons, terminated in 102 B.C. by the victory of Marius at Aix in Provence, contributed to civilise the Ligurians and introduce Roman colonisation along the whole length of the coast. Progress in this direction was rapid, for in the year 89 B.C. the Ligurians were included amongst those recently annexed people to whom the Pompeian law granted the *Jus Latinum;* the *Jus Romanum* not, however, being given them until a century later, in the reign of Nero. The *Jus Latinum* conferred the rights of holding property, of disposing of it by will, and carrying on business, but it did not comprehend, as did the *Jus Romanum,* either *connubium* or the *patria potestas.*

But this enfranchisement in the first case, as in the second, was only given to those territories which officially were recognised as part of the Roman Republic: Nice and Antibes, as belonging to the Phocaean Republic, received no benefit from it.

At the time of Augustus, Liguria formed the seventh of the ten provinces of Gaul; it extended along the coast

westward from *Cemenelium* (or Cimiez) and was administered by a President, the inhabitants of the mountain districts, still classified as "barbarians," being under the command of a prefect of the Equestrian order.

The period of the Roman dominion in Liguria, from its annexation to the dismemberment of the empire, under the pressure of the barbaric invasion, presents to us only two events of note, viz., the opening of the Aurelian Way, and the construction of the monument at Turbia.

Starting from Rome by the *Porta Janiculensis,* afterwards called the *Porta Aurelia,* the great coast road ran by the Etruscan and Ligurian coasts, passing through the towns of Pisa and Genoa as far as *Cemenelium*; from whence, some years later, it was continued to the *Forum Julii* (now called Fréjus), a flourishing town to the east of the Estérel, founded in the year 49 B.C. by a lieutenant of Julius Cæsar. Ultimately it was continued as far as Arles. The entire length of this road constituted the *Via Aurelia,* but that portion which traversed Liguria is better known by the special title of the *Via Aurelia Æmilia.*

We are ignorant of the precise date of the opening of this great work, the only one of the twelve great Roman roads which crossed the limits of Italy; but the trade which sprung up between the Romans and their allies the Phocaeans of Marseilles and the coast of Provence, and the military transports, necessitated by the campaigns of Cæsar in Gaul, during the century previous to the Christian era, had without doubt caused the construction of this road, at least as far as *Cemenelium,* shortly after the constitution of the province. All we know definitely is that the section from Rome to Vado was constructed by the order of Scaurus Æmilius, consul at the period of

the incorporation of Liguria into the territory of the Roman Republic.

The Roman roads were remarkable for the solidity of their construction. They were not, however, broader than about 16½ feet (5 metres), that is, less than the ordinary provincial roads in the present day; but this breadth was fully sufficient for all the wants of the period.

Vehicles were rare in the olden days; people travelled on horseback, and the entire transport of merchandise was effected on the backs of mules.

The system adopted by the Romans in the construction of these roads was copied, it is said, from the Carthaginians. On the *gremium* or solid bed obtained by digging (frequently to a considerable depth), they spread a bed or layer of broken stones, this is the *statumen*; after this came the *rudus*, that is, a layer of concrete formed of large pebbles; then the *nucleus*, another bed of concrete, formed of small pebbles, and finally the *pavimentum*, or the pavement. If then the Aurelian Way was so solidly and durably constructed, it seems strange that we are not able to find any trace whatever of it in these parts. It is true that its maintenance by the Roman administration has been interrupted for more than fifteen centuries, during which period Time has pursued, without any intermission, his slow but inexorable work of destruction. It is true that the configuration of the country has been frequently modified by landslips, by floods, and perhaps even by volcanic eruptions; and that the old road has been entirely engulfed in many places; and finally, that in the middle ages, the little confederated states, always at war with each other, were interested (from the strategic point of view of the

period) far more in interrupting than in maintaining the means of communication.

In the days of Dante, this wonderful road was already little more than a recollection, as we learn from the following passage in his "Purgatorio":

> "Non divenimmo intanto a piè del monte,
> quivi trovammo la roccia sì erta,
> che indarno vi sarien le gambe pronte.
>
> Tra Lerici e Turbia, la più diserta
> la più rotta ruina è una scala,
> verso di quella, agevole ed aperta."
>
> *Purgatorio* III. 46.

> ". . . Meanwhile we had arrived
> far as the mountain foot, and there the rock
> found of so steep ascent that nimblest steps
> to climb it had been vain. The most remote,
> most wild, untrodden path, in all the tract
> 'twixt Lerici and Turbia were to this,
> a ladder easy and of access free."
>
> CAREY'S *Translation*.

In spite, however, of these considerations, one might reasonably have expected to find, even in the present day, some remains of the Aurelian Way, if it had been constructed under the same conditions as the other Roman roads of the first class. But, confronted by the fact that nowhere do we find any signs of it, one is tempted to ask if this road, especially laid out with a view to the transport of troops, and in a far country hardly yet conquered, could really have been the object of the care and expense which the Roman engineers lavished on those in the immediate neighbourhood of the metropolis?

As to the route of the Aurelian Way as it traversed

Liguria, it is probable that it was almost identical with the old Cornice Road, which was after all but the old Roman road repaired, when, towards the end of mediæval times, the various peoples began to lose their dread of easy communications. Some considerable modifications were however necessary at certain points, for the towns of the middle ages were not always built on the same sites as the Roman and Ligurian towns served by the Aurelian Way. It is, however, certain that this road passed by *Cemenelium* by Turbia, by *Albintemelium* (Ventimiglia), and by *Matuta* (San Remo). As to its passage through the canton of Bordighera, we can but make conjectures. This part of the coast, or just about here, was undoubtedly uninhabited at the period in question, for the Roman village of *Sœpe*, where is now situated the modern Sasso, was in all probability posterior to the construction of the Aurelian Way. That being so, and the flatness of the shore offering no serious difficulty to the carrying out of the road, we have no reason whatever for questioning the identity of the route with that of the road of mediæval times which still bears in our neighbourhood the name of the *Strada Romana*.

The era of peace and prosperity which commenced immediately upon the proclamation of the Empire was more quickly followed by substantial benefits in Liguria than in many other provinces, thanks to the monument at Turbia, which flattered the vanity of Augustus, and drew his favours to the province in which his trophy was situated.

The battle of Actium, which put an end to the Republic, was fought on the 2nd September, 31 B.C. Octavius himself seized the reins of power at the commencement of the following year, as Consul and Tribune, but it was not until three years later, after the death of Marcus Aurelius and the taking of Alexandria, in the year 27 B.C., that the Senate accorded him the titles of Augustus and Emperor. These particulars are important, as they show us, sufficiently nearly, the date which we may take as the year when the trophy was erected.

The Senate decreed to Octavius, at the same time that they elected him Emperor, the honour of a public triumph. Augustus refused, and it was decided to substitute a monumental trophy for the proposed entry. Many authors speak of this monument: they have written about it, and I give, on the following page, a copy of the inscription engraved upon it, but none of them make any allusion to its situation, otherwise than in the vaguest manner possible, viz. "on the confines of Italy, and *in summa Alpe*." The result therefore of this omission is, that *three* Roman erections have disputed the honour of being the trophy of Augustus: the Triumphal Arch of Aosta, that of Susa, and the ruin of Turbia; but it is conclusively proved at the present time that the last is the correct one.

The Arch at Aosta is in a much later style than that of the century of Augustus, and the remains of the inscription do not correspond in any degree whatever with the dedication preserved to us by Pliny; the arch at Susa bears an inscription which is still legible and in some respects resembles that of the trophy, but it states that it was raised in honour of the Romans by their ally, King Cottius, and was erected in the year 744 from the building of Rome, whilst the trophy at Turbia, according to Pliny, dates from the year 749.

The following is the inscription as given by Pliny :—

IMP. CAES. DIVI. F. AVGVSTO.
PONT. MAX.
IMP. XIIII. TRIBVNIC. POTEST. XVII.
S. P. Q. R.

QVOD EJVS DVCTV AVSPICIISQVE
GENTES ALPINÆ OMNES
QVÆ A MARE SVPERO AD INFERVM
PERTINEBANT
SVB IMPERIVM P. R.
REDACTÆ SVNT.

GENTES ALPINÆ DEVICTÆ

TRIVMPILINI. CAMVNI. VENONETES.
ISNARCI. BREVNI. NAVNES. FOCVNATES.
VINDELICORVM GENTES QVATVOR.
CONSVANETES. VIRVCENATES. LICATES. CATENATES.
ABISONTES RVGVSCI. SVANETES.
CALVCONES. BRIXENTES. LEPONTII. VIBERI.
NANTVATES. SEDVNI. VERAGRI. SALASSI.
ACITAVONES. MEDVLLI. VCINI.
CATVRIGES. BRIGIANI. SOGONTII. EBRODVNTII.
NEMALONES. EDENATES. ESVBIANI.
VEAMINI. GALLITÆ. TRIVLLATI.
ECTINI. VERGVNNI. EGVITVRI.
NEMENTVRI. ORATELLI. NERVSI. VELAVNI.
SVETRI.

NON SVNT ADJECTÆ
COTTIANÆ CIVITATES XII
QVÆ NON FVERUNT HOSTILES
ITEM ATTRIBVTÆ MVNICIPIIS
LEGE POMPEIA.*

If we complete the abridged words of this dedication, we find the sentence runs as follows:

"Imperatori Cæsari, divi filio, Augusto, pontifici maximo (anno) imperii XIV., tribunitiæ potestatis XVII. senatus populusque romanus. . ."

* I am indebted for the text of the above, and also for a mass of details connected with this monument, to a very learned paper read by M. A. Carlone at the Scientific Congress of France, held at Nice in 1866.

The inscription may be translated as follows:

"To the Emperor Cæsar Augustus, son of a divine father, sovereign Pontiff, in the 14th year of his empire and the 17th of his rule as Tribune, the Senate and people of Rome; because under his leadership and auspices, all the Alpine peoples who are spread from the upper to the lower sea have been brought under the dominion of the Roman people.

Conquered Alpine peoples :—(Here follows list).

"There are not included amongst these, twelve Cottian tribes who were not hostile; neither those (tribes) which have received municipal government by the Pompeian law."

The trophy was raised, or at any rate dedicated, in the year 749 of Rome or 14 B.C., and it was intended to celebrate the submission of forty-seven Alpine tribes dwelling amongst the mountains, from the Adriatic to the Tyrrhenian sea.

Savants have been engaged for centuries in endeavouring to identify the tribes whose names are set forth on the trophy, but their efforts have been hitherto crowned with but little success. And indeed this is not at all surprising, for the Romans were accustomed to disguise the names of the conquered people by latinizing them; besides this, some of the names are found at more than one point, both on the chain of the Alps and the upper Apennines; many of the tribes have disappeared from the earliest times; and finally, the transcribers may not always have copied Pliny's text with accuracy. There is nothing strange, then, in finding a great want of harmony in the various views which have been taken; each student has wished rather to establish his own theory on the subject than really to sift the whole matter. But the truth is, that we must seek for those who are mentioned in the inscription through the whole range of mountains, from

the very confines of the Austrian frontier to the extreme limit of Etruria: in fact, between the same boundaries which are set forth in the inscription itself.

It will be useless in these pages to enter into the discussion as to the right interpretation of this catalogue: but it may perhaps be interesting at least to note some of the names in which the local historians and archæologists have thought they recognised the tribes of the Maritime Alps, for these indications seem to throw a certain light on the etymology of some of the names of the villages on this part of the coast.

Thus *Lepontii*, Levens above Nice; *Viberi* (Sospello) in the valley of the Bevera;* *Brigiani*, Briga, valley of the Roia; *Sogiontii*, Saorgio, in the same valley; *Esubiani*, the valley of Vésubie; *Gallitæ*, Gillette, valley of the Esteron; *Ectini*, valley of the Tinée; *Aratelli*, Utelle, valley of the Vésubie.

To those almost conclusive reasons, which I have already given for looking upon the monument at Turbia as the actual trophy of Augustus, I will now add the following. The trophy was situated on a height; *Fornix*, says Dion Cassius, *trophæum ferens in alpibus impositus est*. Among the Romans the word *alpis* signified simply "height;" it was not till much later, and in low Latin, that it became restricted to designate the lofty range of mountains which bounds Italy on the north. It results therefore that the *summa alpis* where the trophy was placed must be some lofty point close to the Italian

* The Latin word *vibius*, amphibious, and *fiber*, beaver, and the Saxon word *befer* have indeed the same origin. By a singular coincidence of change the first has become *bevero* in Italian, the latter *beaver* in English. The name *Viberi* seems consequently to indicate that the beaver existed formerly amongst the torrents of the Maritime Alps.

boundary, and there is no point which so completely fulfils those conditions as the *Tête de Chien*.

This lofty table-land marked the precise limit of Roman country, since, in pursuing this road further eastward, the traveller met immediately the territories of the Marseillais towns of *Nicæa Civitas* and of *Antipolis*. An important road, the Aurelian Way, passed through it—an advantage which none of the other frontiers could offer—and finally, it constituted a natural, that is a geographical boundary.

Mount Clapier, which is the most elevated peak of the Maritime Alps, marks the point of meeting of the high valleys of the Gesso, the Vésubie, and the Roia, between the passes of Fenêtres and Tenda. From the flanks of this mountain starts a ridge which passes by the heights of the Authion, the Maïris, the Broïs, the Grammont, the Agel, and the Tête de Chien, prior to plunging into the sea at Monaco, forming an uninterrupted range between the Alps and the Mediterranean. This ridge, the only one which fulfils all these conditions, is without doubt the most rational line of demarcation which can be established between the Alps and the Apennines; also the Roman generals, with that first glance which was always so accurate, in spite of the rudimentary state of geographical science at that time, had recognised in this secondary chain the true limit of Italy.

In the Itinerary of Antoninus, written about the year 150, we read this note:

"Huc usque Italia, abhinc Gallia."

According to some data which have been collected, and from which calculations were prepared in 1564 by the Franciscan Boyer (a Niçois)—who had the advantage of

seeing the ruins before the Genoese had carried away the marbles, and the Monégasques had demolished the greater portion of the masonry—the monument consisted of a square tower in the Doric style, whose sides, 230 feet in breadth, were ornamented with massive columns. The height has never been estimated, but it must have been very considerable, for the statue of Augustus, which occupied the summit of the building, and the head of which has been found, was 22 feet in length.

All that remains at the present day of this most imposing monument,* is a rough mass of masonry, and some fragments of sculptured inscription in the walls of the village of Turbia, the name alone of which will ever form an imperishable memento of the trophy of Augustus.

Remains of Roman ruins, naturally numerous in a country traversed by a road like the Aurelian Way, are however, with few exceptions, insignificant in Western Liguria, thanks to the depredations of the Saracens, and the continuous struggles of which this part of Europe was the theatre during the middle ages. The only ones of any remarkable character which still survive are the amphitheatre and aqueduct of Fréjus, the amphitheatre of Cimiez, the monument of Turbia, a strong castle above Ventimiglia, which has seen some service in the wars of mediæval times—*Castel d'Appio*, already mentioned—some remains of villas, a theatre and a cemetery on the right

* We may mention in reference to this trophy, that the Piedmontese Government (and it is a fact which deserves to be put on record) decided in 1859 thoroughly to restore it; the remains were carefully surveyed, and plans duly prepared for the purpose, but unfortunately, the war which broke out in that year put an end to the enterprise. When peace was again restored Turbia belonged to France, and up to the present date no further steps have been taken in the matter. (See PEMBERTON'S *History of Monaco*.)—A. C. D.

bank of the river Nervia, about half a mile to the eastward of Ventimiglia, which probably marked the site of the ancient *Albintemelium*. The theatre already referred to is built of freestone blocks brought from the quarries at Mortola, and bears decided traces of having been destroyed and again rebuilt at a much later period with the same stones, but without much attempt to reproduce the original building. The theatre and cemetery are to be found in a plot of land, consisting of an immense sandbank formed by the winds of many centuries. This ground has been taken as national property, and the excavations have been carried on under the intelligent direction of Professor Gerolamo Rossi, Inspector of excavations and of national or historic monuments in the province. The tombs which have been discovered are five in number, and they contain several objects of interest, amongst others a Christian opisthographum of which it is hoped a facsimile will be published.

A sculptural inscription on the front of the first tomb bears the name of Manius Junius Tranquillus, Prefect of military labourers. It is as follows:

D. M.
MANIO TRAN
QVILLO BENEF
PRAEF FABRIC
PECVLIARIS.
MATER FILIO PI.
ENTISSIMO FEC.

Besides those mentioned, there have also been discovered the ruins of a bridge, which must have carried the Aurelian Way over a brook to the east of San Remo, near the *Rondò*.

CHAPTER III.

THE HERMITAGE AND THE CLOISTER.

The Lower Empire—Barbaric invasions—Origin of monasticism—The hermits and the first monks—St. Honorat at Planasia—The Abbey of Lérins—Ampelius at Bordighera—Hormisdas and Romulus at Matuta.

Western Liguria enjoyed complete tranquillity during the first four centuries of the Christian era; the silence of history forces this conclusion upon us and compels us to pass forward at once to the year 400.

The glory of Rome and the prestige of the Roman name are now but memories. To the manly energy of the Republic, to the splendours of the Augustan age, have succeeded the effeminate luxury and the moral debasement of the Lower Empire.

The Roman people, always implacable as enemies, never became cruel as conquerors, until the decline of their power. In the best days of the Republic as of the Empire, their conquests were based on a sound policy; this, joined to the generous sentiments which a sense of irresistible power inspires in man, prevented the Roman Generals from over ill-treating their vanquished enemies; they desired only to absorb them into the commonwealth and raise them to a higher state of civilisation.

But the period which we are approaching offers a very different history. The gratification of the debased tastes of a decaying and vicious people, and the pursuit of personal advantages by means of the most shameless crimes,

have, for the last three centuries, been the sole occupation of those in power.

The barbarous peoples of the Danube and the Rhine, and the Christians over the whole of the empire, have been pillaged, sent into captivity, and persecuted without measure and without mercy. But the thunder-cloud is about to burst, and the hour of revenge approaches. The blood of gladiators and martyrs has imbued the soil of the arenas, and loudly calls for vengeance:

> "I see before me the gladiator lie:
> he leans upon his hand—his manly brow
> consents to death, but conquers agony,
> and his droop'd head sinks gradually low—
> and through his side the last drops, ebbing slow
> from the red gash, fall heavy, one by one,
> like the first of a thunder-shower; and now
> the arena swims around him—he is gone,
> ere ceased the inhuman shout which hailed the wretch who won.
>
> He heard it but he heeded not—his eyes
> were with his heart, and that was far away;
> he reck'd not of the life he lost nor prize,
> but where his rude hut by the Danube lay,
> there were his young barbarians all at play,
> there was their Dacian mother—he, their sire,
> butcher'd to make a Roman holiday—
> all this rushed with his blood—shall he expire
> and unavenged?—Arise, ye Goths, and glut your ire!"
>
> *Childe Harold*, Canto IV.

It was in the year 400 that Alaric crossed the Alps at the head of the first barbarian invasion. He did not, however, sack Rome until 410, but his Gothic hordes spread themselves immediately throughout Provence and Liguria, and about 405 destroyed the Phocaean town of Nice. But the Roman authority appears then to have been sufficiently powerful to keep them at bay, for

Cemenelium did not fall into the hands of the barbarians until much later, viz. 574.

The invasion by the Goths was the signal in Europe for a period of terror, conflict, and devastation, which lasted till the formation of the powerful states of the Renaissance. The history of this period offers a most heart-rending picture:

"Crudelis ubique
luctus, ubique pavor et plurima mortis imago."

Monasticism was the natural outcome and one of the first results of such a troublous time. The sight of the desolation which reigned over the finest countries of the empire, the depravity and the ignorance which had invaded and eaten into society, and the ravages and massacres which increased on every side, could not fail to disgust thinkers and men of lofty character with life and the world around them. The hermitage was the first result. But soon, either because grottos, however inaccessible and secluded, did not always offer a secure retreat, or because their inhabitants felt the inconveniences of a solitary life, these hermits began to gather into communities and to build dwellings, frequently of a fortified character, which in time became the only refuges remaining in Europe for those who had either attained knowledge or were desirous of acquiring it.

Letters, the fine arts, and science were forced into the background; they were unknown even to the higher classes, and despised by those who made warfare their profession. The Church alone could offer them an asylum and safety; and so it came to pass that thought and learning found in the cloister both a sanctuary and a home.

It was about the end of the fourth or at the beginning of the fifth century, in 375 according to some, in 410

according to others, that a friar, a native of Gaul but descended from a Roman family, after having vainly wandered over Europe and the East in search of a spot for meditation and rest, established himself in a hermitage on Cape Roux in the Estérel, where, later on, some pious monks having joined him, he decided on founding a monastery. Two beautiful islands, situated at the entrance of a superb gulf, easy to fortify, and sufficiently far from the coast to render surprise improbable, attracted St. Honorat and his associates, and led them to determine on the foundation of the institution known in history as the *Abbey of Lérins.*

"The group of the Lérins Islands, towards which the continent throws out the low headland of the *Cap de la Croisette,* is composed of two islands, unequal in size, but symmetrical in shape, and running parallel, side by side, in the direction of east and west. The northernmost one, the shores of which face north-west in abrupt cliffs, is separated from the coast of Cannes by a strait of about three-quarters of a mile wide, crowded with rocks, amongst which it is hardly safe to navigate a vessel drawing more than twelve or fourteen feet of water. The anchorage of Frioul, which stretches between the two islands, has a very similar depth, and is 760 feet broad. Some little islets, entirely uninhabited, complete the archipelago. A temple dedicated to *Lero,* a famous pirate of the heroic times, in whom it is possible to recognise Hercules, rises on the larger island; the name of the demi-god became the title of the entire group, and is continued to the present day under the transformation of *Lérins.*"*

Saint Honorat chose the most distant of the two islands,

* Reclus—*Les Villes d'Hiver de la Méditerranée.*

Planasia, without doubt because of its sheltered position from attack, and as protected in a great degree by *Lerina*. For there was on the large island a colony of barbarians subsisting on piracy.

This *cœnobium* soon became a sort of school of theology. St. Honorat, a learned theologian, an eloquent preacher, an enthusiastic apostle, was in every respect a master mind, proof of which we find in the large number of those who as disciples placed themselves under his teaching, amongst whom indeed are to be noted some of the foremost names of the fifth century, such as St. Loup, bishop of Troyes, St. Patrick, evangelist of Ireland, and Salvien, the preacher of Marseilles. But Honorat was too distinguished a man and too valuable to the Church to be left indefinitely upon his island, and in 427 he yielded to the entreaties with which he was assailed, and accepted the bishopric of Arles.

Towards the middle of the sixth century the monastery adopted the Benedictine rule, as formulated by St. Benedict in 529 at *Monte Cassino* in the *Terra di Lavoro*.

From this time it developed rapidly, and became at once a monastery, a fortress, and an important commercial centre, until, at the end of the century, its fame had spread throughout Europe and placed it amongst the most celebrated institutions of its kind, its monks having increased to nearly 3700 in number. These naturally could not all subsist upon the Lérins Islands, but established powerful and numerous dependencies in the neighbourhood, a hospital at Genoa, a nunnery at Tarascon, two other monasteries on the Ligurian coast, and, somewhat later on, an establishment of a very peculiar character in the immediate neighbourhood of Bordighera, and which played an interesting part in the local history of the six-

teenth century: hence we shall again meet the abbey in the great days of Louis XIV.

At the very same time that St. Honorat was establishing himself in his grotto in the Estérel, another individual, whose history singularly resembles his, although the latter's work lacked the widespread reputation of the former's, had come and installed himself in the cavern at the extremity of the Cape of Bordighera. This was Ampelius, the patron saint of the locality.

The historical particulars which exist with regard to this saint contain but few details. His biographer, the Abbé Rossi of Sasso, having examined the old manuscripts and ecclesiastical works which are to be found in the libraries of Genoa and Turin, concludes as follows:

"According to some writers *Ampelius* (*Ampelio* in Italian) was born at Arezzo in Tuscany, but this has been contradicted; what is more to the point is, that St. Petronius, Bishop of Bologna, found him amongst a number of monks and hermits in Upper Egypt, where he followed the trade of a blacksmith."

The austerity of his life, his devotion to the suffering, and the remarkable miracles which he accomplished, in a very short time created for him in the Thebaïd a notoriety which was far from being to his taste, and he speedily obtained from his superior permission to abandon the life of the cloister and pass into that of the Anchorites.

The neighbourhood of Bordighera must have been uninhabited at this time, but we can well imagine that the Cape, with its splendid view, its pure and stimulating air, and its delicious climate, had attractions for one seeking a peaceful retreat, far from the busy hum of men. But though we are ignorant of what especial chain of circum-

stances brought Ampelio to this place, it is allowed that he died here in the year A.D. 428, after having inhabited for several years the Grotto, which at the present time forms the crypt of the chapel.

His death was a public loss to the whole of Western Liguria, for he had been at once an oracle and benefactor. Here, as in Egypt, his life had been devoted to the welfare of his neighbour, and his miracles and the austerity of his life had made him as celebrated as beloved. He was buried in the same cave which had been his dwelling-place, and his tomb quickly became a favourite place of pilgrimage.*

This grotto, which is still visited by many on the 14th of May, his *fête* day as patron saint of the town, is now surmounted by a chapel, the date of the original construction of which is unknown. It must, however, have been after the year 1140, since at that period the people of San Remo, in their anxiety to discover the tomb, were compelled to seek information as to its situation from certain Vintimiglian prisoners, who gained their release by disclosing the secret: a most improbable fact, if the Grotto had already been marked by a sanctuary. It was, however, enlarged and restored in 1852, but still remains partially incomplete. The statue in marble, very fairly executed, which stands above the altar, represents the saint holding his blacksmith's hammer, and was placed there on June 29th, 1655.

The priory is a very ancient foundation: it possessed formerly a revenue of one hundred crowns per annum, but reduced later to fifty.

The ashes of St. Ampelio rested in peace in the hermitage, now become a vault, until the middle of the twelfth century, when they were transported to San Remo, and later on to Genoa, under circumstances of which I shall speak hereafter.

* Professor F. Rossi—*Memorie di S. Ampelio.*

At this distance of time it is not easy to separate fact from fiction in the legend of *St. Ampelio.* His biographers, as we have found, state distinctly that he passed the first portion of his life in Egypt, but it is impossible to deny the fact that this assertion rests entirely on the hypothesis that the name of *Apelles,* under which *St. Petronius* and others knew him in the East, had been transformed into *Ampelius* on his arrival in Italy. So that it may have been with his, as with other Greek names known and in use in Italy at the period when he existed, that the *last* form became that most common; there was a Roman prefect under Valentinian, and a Latin author of the fifth century named *Ampelius.*

The transformation is then quite possible, but it does not appear sufficiently well proved to establish absolutely the identity of the two individuals.

However this may be, the presence of a hermit in the grotto on the Cape at the commencement of the fifth century must be considered an incontestable fact; and it is equally probable that this individual was a *saint* in the truest acceptation of the word: that is, a humble and earnest Christian, devoted to his fellow-men, and ready to sacrifice everything in the philanthropic and missionary work which he had undertaken.

With regard to the miracles which his biographers attribute to him, some of which might have rivalled those of the Apostles and their Divine Master himself, if we are obliged to hesitate in accepting them at once and without

examination, we must at least recognise in them deeds of courage and nobleness which come down to us, after fourteen centuries, disguised and exaggerated by the continually magnifying power of popular tradition. We can well say, then, of St. Ampelius, borrowing the words of one of the hymns of his office :

"Hic Deo soli procul a profanis
serviens mundi docuit caducas,
spernere invicto pede res, et astra
mente subire.

Corpus affixit macie ritique
arduam duxit sine labe vitam
donec insignis meritis beata
regna petivit."

Or, to roughly paraphrase it into English :

"Alone, remote from sin, he served his God,
the fleeting things of this world daily spurned,
treading them firmly 'neath the resisting sod,
whilst heart and eyes were ever heavenward turned.

By poverty and fasting mortified
his flesh, and stainless lived in faith and love;
famed for pure life and gentle deeds, he died—
say, rather, sought the blessed realms above!"

J. Y.

The town of Matuta has no place in the history of the Roman period, but the peculiarly Latin form of the name and the ruins which have been discovered indicate very clearly that it was founded at the latest under the empire and before the fall of Paganism. Matuta, then,* does

* *Matuta*, commonly called "Mater Matuta," was the Goddess of the Dawn, identified by the Romans with the *Leucothea* of the Greeks. Her festival, the *Matralia*, was celebrated on the 11th of June. As to *Leucothea*, we read that she was originally a mortal, *Ino* by name, and the second wife of Athænas, a son of Æolus; owing, however, to domestic troubles, which it is unnecessary to recount here, she threw herself with a son into the sea, and, as a reward apparently, was changed into the goddess Leucothea.

not appear on the scene of history until the commencement of the seventh century. At this time, according to tradition, Stephen, Bishop of Genoa, sent as a missionary a monk of the name of Hormisdas. We know nothing whatever of the life of this worthy, except that, like Ampelius of Bordighera, he lived, died, and was buried in a grotto which is still, at the present day, an object of veneration.

The invasion of the Lombards under Alboin took place towards the end of the sixth century. They destroyed Cimiez in 574, Matuta in 641, Genoa in 670 under Rotharis.

The Bishop of the last town, Romulus by name, driven from his own diocese, took refuge in the grotto of Hormisdas in the midst of the ruins of Matuta. The population, scattered and miserable, gathered themselves instantly round him, and, encouraged no less by his example than by his exhortations, began to reconstruct the town which afterwards was known as *San Romolo.*

We shall see in good time how, much later on, *Romulus* became *Remus,* prior to forming the modern name of *San Remo.*

CHAPTER IV.

THE FEUDAL TIMES.

The Genoese league—The Emperor suzerains—Foundation of fortified villages—Matuta, Nice, Monaco, and Ventimiglia during the Middle Ages.

THE first traces of a revival, after the long period of anarchy and the degradation of the moral sense which accompanied the dismemberment of the empire, are not

found in Western Liguria until the commencement of the seventh century. The Genoese League, embracing the whole of the coast, was organised in 617, and victoriously resisted the Franks until the overwhelming triumphs of Charlemagne and his coronation by Leo III. in the year 800.

But a new era of confusion and trouble was at hand. Charlemagne died in 814 and his empire was divided amongst his sons: Charles the Bald received France (as for shortness we may call it), whilst Italy fell to Lothair, who took the title of Emperor of the West.

But at this time the emperors were no more than titular suzerains of Liguria, where the colonies had already begun taking the first steps towards the formation of free towns. The continued incursions of the Saracens forced moreover the inhabitants of the sea-coasts to fortify their villages and to arm themselves in defence of their hearths, independently of a sovereign whom incessant wars, not less than a tottering throne, occupied far too exclusively to cast an eye even on a country not only far off, but without any political importance.

Thus then were founded the Ligurian villages, the oldest of which had a much greater resemblance to strongly fortified castles than agricultural hamlets, whose populations, gathered together around their intrepid leaders, erected themselves these fortified dwellings on situations as varied as well chosen; sometimes on a commanding position, sometimes carefully hidden by wooded hills, but always easy to defend, and from whence they never went out, even to attend to their agricultural labours, but with arms in their hands—to pillage, it might be, one another, or to contend together against the common enemy, the pirates (the African corsairs), whose sudden or unexpected landings were a source of permanent danger.

The history of Western Liguria during the whole of the feudal times hardly offers to our notice any events of interest.

The town of Matuta, which did not officially take the name of San Remo until the twelfth century, was a fief of the Bishopric of Genoa. Nice, whose population and prosperity had increased with great rapidity towards the end of the sixth century, thanks to the immigration of the inhabitants of Cimiez (which town had been destroyed by the Lombards in the year 574), was possessed in turn by the kings of France, the Bishop of Genoa, and the Counts of Arles; but in the year 900 consuls were elected, and the town rejoiced in an almost complete autonomy until its union with the "county"* of Provence in 1228, during the reign of Raymond Béranger IV. In 1332, however, it was taken by Amadeus VII. of Savoy, and from that time remained almost uninterruptedly in the possession of that house.

Monaco, originally founded, so it is said, by Hercules, and occupied continuously by the Saracens from the time of Charlemagne, was ceded to Genoa in 1162 by the Emperor Frederic II., but the republic did not take possession until 1215.

In 1338, Charles Grimaldi, a Frankish noble according to some, a Genoese according to others, seized the territory composed of the communes of Monaco, Roquebrune, and Mentone, and founded a principality which, though it has passed through an endless variety of vicissitudes, has, so far at least as Monaco itself is concerned, remained ever in his family.

* As this word *county* may perhaps cause confusion to English readers, I will mention that the meaning here is perfectly distinct from our ordinary use of it. Here it refers to a province governed by a "Count."—A. C. D.

Ventimiglia, a very strong and important place according to the strategy of that time, arose upon the ruins of the ancient *Albintemelium*, and had given it the rank of a "county" by the Emperor Otho I., towards the end of the tenth century. Sanguinary wars with Genoa, varied by repeated sieges, followed each other, until the town was finally joined with the republic in the thirteenth century.

It would but uselessly fatigue the reader to repeat the details of the long see-saw of local wars, of the cessions, more or less definite, of the various territories and of continual depredations by the Saracens. It is, however, necessary, in order to understand clearly the later events connected with this part of the coast which we are specially interested in, that before recounting the foundation of Bordighera, we take a rapid view over the history of some of its localities; viz. Ventimiglia, San Remo, the Fief of Seborga, and the Principality of Monaco.

CHAPTER V.

THE "COUNTY" OF VENTIMIGLIA.

Introduction of Christianity—Origin of the "county"—Early wars with Genoa—Translation of the body of St. Ampelio—Civil war—Ventimiglia as a Commune—Fresh wars with Genoa: first siege and stratagems of the Genoese—Second siege and capitulation of the town—Third siege and destruction of the town—The "*Castrum Vintimiliense*"—Ventimiglia a Genoese possession.

VENTIMIGLIA, which at the end of the Roman dominion was an important town—an *urbs magna*, as the writers of the period tell us—had developed rapidly during the first centuries of the middle ages, whilst its position, strong

from the ease with which it could be defended when attacked, drew to it an ever-increasing population. Christianity was introduced at a very early date; tradition indeed has it, that many saints of the first century visited it—amongst others, the suffragan apostle Barnabas, who came and preached in these parts and founded the Bishopric of Ventimiglia. However this may be, it is certain that the baptistry and the cathedral are amongst the most ancient pagan temples in Liguria, transformed into Christian churches. It is impossible, unfortunately, to fix the exact date of the first creation of the "county" of Ventimiglia*. According to some authorities, Charlemagne had awarded it to a certain Guido Guerra, a noble of Liguria; according to others, the Emperor Otho I. had created it to the profit and for the benefit of Count Aléran; whilst again there are some (and according to Abbé Rossi with greater truth), who trace the descent of the Counts of Ventimiglia from Conrad, son of Bérenger II., King of Italy, who died in the year 962.

The "county" was originally a dependency of the *marquisat* of Susa, and extended on the east as far as the Armeria by Taggia and Porto Maurizio, to the west to Turbia and *St. Etienne de la Tinée*, whilst to the north it was bounded by Piedmont or the Duchy of Turin.

At the commencement of the twelfth century, the Republic of Genoa aspired to the supremacy of the whole of Liguria, and constructed a powerful fortress at San Remo, under the pretext of securing the safety of the roads. A struggle followed, in which the Count was worsted, only just preserving his independence, but in 1140 the Genoese

* See note on page 79. The use is here a territorial one, just as we now say "the Duchy of Lancaster," or "Duchy of Cornwall."—A. C. D.

Government, always jealous of the autonomy of Ventimiglia, complained to Conrad II., King of the Romans, with regard to the inhabitants of the county, characterising them as "robbers and pirates," and implored his aid to crush them. Conrad allied himself to the Marquess of Savona, and laid siege to the town, which was taken and sacked.

The people of *San Romulo* took on this occasion a certain number of Ventimiglian prisoners, but gave them their liberty in exchange for the body of St. Ampelio, or rather on their informing their captors of the exact situation of the grotto where the saint was buried, at the extremity of the Cape which bears his name.

The body of the saint, therefore, had already become an object of veneration. The Ventimiglians attached, without doubt, a very great value to it, and at the commencement of hostilities they had probably destroyed, with very great care, everything that might indicate the entrance of the cavern.

Any way, the fact of the inhabitants of the former town giving liberty to their prisoners on their divulging the secret, proves very clearly that there can have been no sanctuary raised over the tomb at this time.

The body of the saint was then transported to San Remo and deposited in the church of St. Stephen, where it rested until 1258, at which time his relics were again removed, this time to Genoa, and placed in a church there also dedicated to St. Stephen, and belonging, curiously enough, to the Abbey of Lérins, which, as before mentioned, was founded by his great contemporary, St. Honorat.

Soon after these events, Count Hubert made submission and did homage to the Republic of Genoa, receiving in

return a formal investiture of seignorial rights over the "county." This was nothing else but an abdication under another name; but it had deeper significance so far as the town was concerned, for from this event we must date for Ventimiglia the commencement of free government by Consuls and a Parliament.

Towards, however, the end of the twelfth century, an interesting movement began through the whole length of Liguria, having for its object union with Genoa, then the most important naval and commercial power in that part of the Mediterranean. For that great but unscrupulous republic, whose fiscal policy was of an entirely protectionist character, knew only too well, that the best means of imposing its suzerainty on the inhabitants of the coast, was, by appealing not to their fears, but to their pockets! The allies and friendly towns could traffic freely with Genoa; their vessels, laden with merchandise, might enter and leave her ports at will, whilst the ships of the independent Communes were taxed, and their freights almost crushed by onerous duties, ere they could enter the harbour.

But the inhabitants of Ventimiglia, who not only possessed ships, but had even a little port at the mouth of the Roia, claimed to act independently and to trade with distant countries on their own account. They therefore held themselves aloof, and even dared, under the influence of an ambassador of the Emperor Frederic Barbarossa, to destroy a fortress which the Genoese had erected just above their town, and later on, completed their defiance by boldly taking the side of the Emperor against the Republic in the wars of the Lombardian League.

Ventimiglia thus became practically a fief of the

Empire, and the authority of the Counts was reduced to zero.

But on the death of Count Guy (who, having more philosophy than force of character, had fallen easily into the state of affairs), his son and successor, Otho, sought at once to recover his lost authority and to suppress again the liberties of the town.

This was naturally the signal for a civil war. The Count was besieged in the castle of St. Agnes and his son in that of Dolceaqua, which latter was taken and burnt in 1185.

The triumph of the town was followed by a compromise, the result of which was, that Count Otho granted a charter to his people, not only re-establishing all their rights, but even extending them.

Ventimiglia then entered upon a period of complete independence, enjoying a Republican form of government in everything but the name. Authority was exercised by four elected Consuls, a Council of nobles or citizens of position, and a Parliament which met in the Cathedral of St. Maria, an extremely ancient building which had been erected on the ruins of a temple of Juno.

The principal officers of the State were—the *Cintracus* "Herald;" the *Boni Viri* or experts, charged with the administration of the public funds; a Chancellor, who undertook the drawing up of the parliamentary reports and the decrees of the Consuls; and a *Potestas* or High Bailiff, whose position was that of Chief Judge, and who attached the great seal of the Commune to the public acts.

The *Cintracus*, in the free towns at this time, and especially in Genoa under the Republic, was a very important functionary, who combined, in a sort of way, the

modern posts of Secretary to the Commune and *Huissier*.* He called Parliament together, took oaths in the name of the State, acted as "Public Prosecutor," presided at the auctions for the farming of the taxes, and promulgated the laws and all the news after blowing his horn in the Piazza.

But a system of liberty so complete, especially when combined with great commercial prosperity, could not fail to cause irritation to the two natural enemies of the town: the titular family of the county, who still longed to re-assert their lost authority, and the Republic of Genoa, always jealous of any rival, however insignificant; and the time, alas! was not far off when this spirited little town was to be made cruelly conscious of it. In the year 1196, Count Otho and the Genoese combined their forces and besieged Ventimiglia for the space of two months, but failing, in spite of the most determined efforts, to enter the town, they organised a league of the whole of Liguria to make *Guerram vivam contra Vintimilienses*.

I may mention here that the name of Ventimiglia has suffered many transformations; its primitive was *Alpium Intemelium*, which afterwards became *Albintemelium;* later it was abbreviated to *Intemelium*, whilst towards the end of the middle ages we find *Vintimilium*. The formation *Vigintimilium*, which is found in many documents, is nothing but an unscholarly translation of *Ventimilium*.

The allies established their camp on the Cape of St. Ampelio, but they were unable to do more than ravage the country on either side of the Nervia.

In face of a resistance as successful as it was obstinate and courageous, the Genoese, finding force of no avail, had

* This is a sort of French equivalent of our sheriff's officer.—A. C. D.

recourse to stratagem, and caused a rumour to be spread that a large Ventimiglian galley, which had been cruising on the coast of Spain, had been captured and taken into Genoa.

At this news, as disastrous as unexpected, the gallant defenders of Ventimiglia at once laid down their arms and capitulated, in order that they might purchase the safety of their compatriots, now, as they believed, fallen into the hands of a cruel and vindictive enemy, and the Genoese entered and took possession of the town.

The history of the miserable years which followed is alas but that common to most of the smaller states during mediæval times—a long series of hopeless revolts on the one side and bloody repressions on the other, only one of which is of sufficient importance to find mention here.

In the year 1222 the town of Ventimiglia had allied itself to Raymond V. of Provence, who had married the Princess Beatrice of Savoy. Raymond himself directed the defence of the town, and a most memorable siege took place; a siege the most terrible in every respect which this unfortunate town has ever sustained. Finding themselves utterly unable to take by assault a town situated as this was on the top of a precipitous cliff, the Genoese decided to reduce it by famine. They therefore sank a large galley full of stones at the mouth of the Roya, thus most effectually blocking the port,* and also turned the course of the river aside above the town, entirely depriving the inhabitants of water; the result of which was that

* This was the same course, it may be remembered, as that taken by the commander of the United States Naval Forces in order to reduce New Orleans to submission, and put a stop to the blockade running, which was the chief means of support of the beleaguered city.—A. C. D.

after an heroic resistance Ventimiglia was compelled once more to capitulate.

At the conclusion of the siege, the Genoese restored the *Castel d'Appio*, and constructed the present fortress of St. Paul, hoping by these means to hold in subjection this brave and independent little town. But symptoms of another revolt were not long in re-appearing, and drawing down upon it again the wrath of its powerful suzerain.

A third siege took place in 1251, and terminated in the complete defeat of the Ventimiglian forces on the Cape of St. Ampelio; upon which occasion the Genoese razed to the ground the strong fort which stood on this point, and which some writers mention under the title of *Castrum mutimiliense*, a word which is probably an accidental variation, a clerical error perhaps, of *Vintimiliense*. This town also bore the name of the Monastery of St. Benedict, and served as a sort of resting-place or half-way house for the monks of Lérins in their maritime communications with their possession of Seborga, of which I shall have to speak further on.

In taking leave of this period of the history of Ventimiglia we must consider it as a Genoese possession; for the Counts—the family having greatly increased, and divided amongst themselves the various villages and strong castles scattered over the county—were but little more than petty lords, who placed their services and their followers at the disposal of any warring prince—for a consideration! Unfortunately, however, union with Genoa was far from proving the commencement of a period of prosperity to this unhappy people, whose position as a frontier-town exposed them to continual dangers. During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries Ventimiglia was

continually the toy of the varying fortunes of war, in the struggles of the Guelphs and Ghibelins; it passed even for a short time into the hands of Ladislas, King of Naples, but Genoa quickly took possession again; whilst about the year 1388, Amadeus VII. of Savoy made a long and ineffectual siege of the town, which, however, remained faithful to the Republic.

I cannot follow further the especial history of Ventimiglia. The more modern events which occurred in this interesting town will be found in the chapters relating to the foundation of Bordighera, and the development of the Confederation of the Eight Towns.

CHAPTER VI.

SAN REMO IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

Depredations of the Saracens—Rule of the Archbishops of Genoa—Sale to two Counts—Taken by D'Oria and sale to Genoa—*Romulus* becomes *Remus*.

SITUATED at the bottom of a wide gulf, without natural protection and without strategic importance, owing to the fact that no valley of any size opens in its neighbourhood, the history of San Remo is far from offering as interesting a picture of striking events and dramatic adventures as that I have just been recounting.

The Saracens devastated Matuta over and over again in the ninth and tenth centuries, but after their complete defeat and expulsion from the *Fraxinets*,* which they

* For explanation of the "Fraxinets" of the Saracens, see chap. viii.

possessed on the coast by William, Count of Provence, in 972, a *Villa Matutiana, loco Sancti Romuli,* was constructed through the influence of Theodolphus, Bishop of Genoa. This town originally formed part of the "county" of Ventimiglia, but in 1038, the Count Conrad, submitting to the pressure exercised by his suzerain, the Emperor Conrad II., signed a convention by which he renounced in favour of the Bishop of Genoa (who was also named Conrad) all his rights over the new city: "*omnibus rebus . . . quæ sunt positæ in comitatu Vigintimiliense, in locos et fundos ipsius loci Sancti Romuli.*"*

During the rule of the archbishops, St. Romulus governed itself almost as if it had been a free town. Its distance from Genoa, the difficulties of communication, and the embarrassment which continued political complications caused in the diocese (raised to the rank of an archbishopric in 1135), practically limited the intervention of the archbishop to the nomination of consuls, to the levying of certain assessments or annual taxes, and to the exaction of an oath of fidelity in the Church of St. Syrus, patron of the city, which the *Cintracus* took every five years in the name of the people.

But the temporal and spiritual powers did not manage to pull along together in this little town in the Middle Ages better than they have done in our own times in far more important States. Two opposing factions soon formed themselves, followed by intestine struggles which paralysed all authority, and checked public prosperity, until at last the archbishop himself decided most wisely to dispose of a possession which it was neither possible to govern becomingly nor which gave back anything for all his care.

* Rossi—*Storia della Città di San Remo.*

In 1297, therefore, the archbishop obtained from Boniface VIII. a Bull, which authorised him to sell St. Romulus and Ceriana,—*castra Sancti Romuli et Celianæ*,—to two Genoese nobles, Hubert d'Oria and George de Mari, for the sum of three thousand Genoese livres (about 13,000*l.*). These two counts did not long enjoy in peace their common possession. The D'Orias declared for the Ghibelins and the De Mari for the Guelphs, and this involved this unhappy commune in the great struggle of these two powerful factions. Later on, one of the D'Orias found himself sole ruler of St. Romulus, but he was dislodged by Robert, King of Naples, who installed there one Cosmo de Mari as his lieutenant.

But in 1330, Antonio D'Oria, who commanded the naval forces of the Ghibelins on this coast, drove out the Guelphs and took possession of the commune, which he sold to the Genoese Republic for a sum total, paid in many instalments and to various creditors, of fifteen thousand five hundred and fifty Genoese livres, or nearly 16,000*l.* sterling.

The final union with the Republic was signed on the 15th of March, 1361, in the *Basilica* of St. Lawrence at Genoa.

Some little time after this, but at any rate during the fifteenth century, the name of St. Romulus was changed for St. Remus, but there exists no satisfactory explanation for this transformation; M. Elisée Reclus, in his *Villes d'Hiver de la Méditerranée* states that the inhabitants of the *first* St. Romulus, which occupied the site of Matuta, sought refuge, after the pillage of their town by the Saracens, on a steep hill, where they constructed a new St. Romulus, surrounded by walls, but that when the

danger of these barbarous occurrences had become less imminent, viz. in 973, some citizens of St. Romulus descended into the plains and founded on the site of ancient Matuta a new town, to which they gave the name of *St. Remus*, in order to show the kinship of these two neighbouring cities.

This hypothesis carries with it a certain amount of probability, the more so as the name of *San Romolo* is still to be found associated with a little hamlet, built upon a steep hill, some hours distant from San Remo; but it is supported by no proof whatever by M. Reclus, and one would like to know something of the facts upon which he bases his theory, for the local historians make no mention whatever of it. That, however, which proves that it *could* not have been as he suggests, is the fact that the town which was erected upon the ruins of Matuta bore officially and continuously the name of St. Romulus—*locus*—and later on *Castrum* and *oppidum Sancti Romuli*, up to the period to which we have now arrived. Local historians, both Professor Rossi and the Abbé Grosso, attribute the change from *Romulus* to *Remus* to a simple modification of the word, due to the influences exercised on the pronunciation of Latin in this part of Italy by the irruption of the Goths. They would at first shorten the name to *Romus*, and later on the pronunciation of the *o* would insensibly approach that of *e*.*

The odd result of this transformation is, that it has given successively to the same town, the names of the two

* Such changes are common enough in the names of English towns and villages, the natural tendency to shorten a word being the most frequent cause: *Brighton*, from the Saxon *Brighthelmston*, being a fair example. For further explanations see chap. xv.—A. C. D.

brothers who founded Rome, and yet in all probability this fact is, extraordinary as it may appear, absolutely the merest and most accidental coincidence.

CHAPTER VII.

THE FIEF OF SEBORGA.

Controversies on the subject of cession of Seborga to the Abbey of Lérins—Act settling boundaries with Ventimiglia in 1177—Other possessions of Lérins in the neighbourhood—The Abbey coins money at Seborga—Act of assignment of 1666—Act of confiscation of 1686—Negociations for sale with Genoa—Final sale to the House of Savoy.

The little village of *Seborga*, *Seborca*, or *Sabourg* (the Roman *Sepulchrum*), which forms to-day a commune of the canton of Bordighera, was formerly a portion of the "county" of Ventimiglia, remaining so, as did the rest of the district, up to the commencement of feudal times, to be detached later on, and become a possession of the powerful Abbey of Lérins. This fact is incontestable: that which is less so is the title in pursuance of which the Lérins Monastery arrogated to itself the sovereignty of the district and the period to which this sovereignty continued. At the end of an old document drawn up in the form of a will, a certain Guido Guerra, Count of Ventimiglia, wishing to secure the repose of his soul before departing to fight against the Saracens in 954, bequeathed Seborga to the monks of St. Honorat: *Castrum de sepulchro cum mero et libero imperio, cum ejus habitatoribus et territorio . . . propri mei juris do et lego pro sepulchro meo et anima*

*mea et parentum meorum.** This document is, however, treated as apocryphal by almost all the historians and archæologists who have interested themselves in this question. According to Gioffredo, the fraud dates from the year 1446, and was the work of a monk of the abbey, George by name, belonging to the family of the Counts of Ventimiglia, who, as a clever modern critic says, "had acquired a certain celebrity for this kind of work." †

That the "county" of Ventimiglia existed, however, at the period in question, is without doubt. The historian Rossi has observed with perfect justice that if it is true, on the one side, that we do not possess any authentic document that speaks of a Count of Ventimiglia before the year 1000, it is equally true on the other, that the *Liber Jurium* of Genoa bears witness to a petition of Bishop Theodolphus, dated the year 962, on the subject of certain lands situated in *comitatu vigintimiliense*. But if the "county" existed there would also have been a titular count; it is therefore possible that *Guido Guerra* was a real personage, and the actual author of the will which has been attributed to him.

I venture, however, to suggest as an argument in support of the contrary view, that an act of division of the lands of Ventimiglia and Seborga in 1177, drawn up between the Consuls and the Benedictine Fathers of Lérins, speaks with great distinctness of a then living and a real *Guido Guerra* as titular count. A legacy by will in 954, and a formal gift with definition of boundaries two centuries later, but both by two counts of similar names, is, to say the least, a suspicious circumstance, and of a nature to

* Rossi—*Storia di Ventimiglia.*

† Paper read by M. A. Carlone at the *Congrès Scientifique de France* at Nice, in 1866.

suggest serious doubts as to the authenticity of the earlier document.

A forger not blessed with a vivid imagination, but fearing, for reasons more or less avowed, that the possession of Seborga by his convent might one day be disputed, and wishing to protect this possession from all controversy and invest it with the authority of age, would find nothing easier than to attribute a gift so ancient to the name of one who had actually existed. And he would avoid detection up to a certain point: for the gift would always have been signed by *Guido Guerra;* the period alone would be changed. At any rate, he may have been able to put upon a wrong scent the critics of the fifteenth century.

Whatever *may* have been the case, this at least is certain, that the fief belonged to the abbey by right or by usurpation prior to the act defining the boundaries in 1177, which implied less a gift than the regulation of a previously existing state of things.

Others, however, of the reverend fathers had already been attracted to the neighbourhood. They possessed the Castrum Vintimiliense on the Cape of St. Ampelio; in 1041 Count Otho (?) had given them the Monastery of St. Michael at Ventimiglia; his son had added, in 1080, the Church of St. Mary at Canolese; and finally, in 1092, the Bishop of Ventimiglia gave up to them that of St. Mary of Saorgio.

This powerful abbey had, moreover, a strong tendency to push forward and colonize, and there is nothing astonishing in their coveting this little fief, even independently of the practice they afterwards followed there. This practice was coining money.

We are ignorant at what period this enterprising

monastery commenced to make use of that most sovereign of rights, and which had perhaps been exercised secretly from a very remote date, thanks to the possession of an insignificant village hidden amongst the mountains, and where no traveller ever cared to wander. One is therefore well able to understand the anxiety of these reverend fathers to assure to themselves by every means in their power their sovereignty of the fief.

The monks, however, did not always carry on this work of coining gold and silver pieces themselves; they farmed it out to manufacturers: but only one of their acts of assignment has been preserved to us. It is dated the 24th of December, 1666, and had been drawn up by a M. Jean De Luc, *Notaire Héréditaire* at Cannes.

This deed is a concession in favour of one Bareste of Mougins for four years, in consideration of an annual rent of 1500 livres, payable in half-yearly instalments, and authorised the grantee:

"To coin gold pieces, large and small, and to sell them in the countries of the Levant with the stamp and arms of the said monastery, of the same weight and quality as those now circulating, and all the said pieces of money which shall be made at the said mint of the quality of seven standard-fine, at the least, and the gold pieces which shall also be coined at the said mint shall be of 18 carat fine gold; to which the said Bareste binds himself. Moreover, the said Reverend Fathers, as named, also give permission and a faculty to the said Bareste to coin in the said mint pieces of five sols and other pieces of silver common to the countries of the Levant, with the same stamp and arms as above, and of the same standard and quality of those above mentioned; further, that he can coin the said pieces in such quantity as he pleases, by day or night, by coining press or hammer, as may seem good to him, &c."

At the Museum of Vienna are still to be found some specimens of these gold pieces struck at Seborga; they

bear the dates of 1666 and 1686, with the effigy of the Monastery of Lérins, surmounted by a mitre, and the inscription, *Deus et ornamentum ecclesiæ.*

But the mint at Seborga was destined to a sad ending, and at the moment of its greatest prosperity.

The administration of the abbey, either too absorbed in commercial and agricultural works to occupy itself with questions of conscience, or finding that the Protestants were better workmen than the Catholics, committed, at a certain period of their history, the mistake of farming the establishment at Seborga to a Huguenot contractor. This was indeed a blunder from the point of view of those most interested, occurring, as it did, in the reign of a cruel and arrogant monarch, who allowed himself to be so blinded by the flatteries of a Jesuit without conscience, as to devote five hundred thousand of the worthiest of his subjects to exile, to slaughter, and to persecution of the most revolting character.

The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes was signed on the 22nd of October, 1685, and was followed by a series of vexatious measures, which the most despotic government of our own days would blush at: they ordered the demolition of the churches and the schools of the Protestants, they took from them their children, they forbad their lawyers from practising: they forbad them employing or serving other than Catholics, and they dispatched the dragoons of Bâville in pursuit of the recalcitrants! In the midst, then, of such a state of things, who could hope that a Protestant manager would be tolerated in an establishment which was considered to be situated on French territory, since it belonged by sovereign right of possession to a French monastery?

The decree, given below, and which was issued eight months after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, is a proof that the bloodhounds of Letellier were not sleeping:—

"It having been represented to the King, in Council, that one Dabic by name, a tradesman of the town of Nimes, of the R.P.R.* who has lived for some time past at Sabourg, a dependency of the monastery of Saint Honorat, at Lérins, and has there coined money in pursuance of a lease which had been granted him for a term of three years by the administration of the said abbey, at the rate of fifteen hundred livres per annum: and as, by the same lease, it is allowed to the said Dabic on the part of the monks to worship according to his own faith, and to have with him such number of friends and workmen as may seem good to him, which things his Majesty desires to alter:—

"The King, in Council, has broken and annulled the said lease, as also all other leases, general and particular, of the farms and dependencies of Sabourg made to the contractors of the R.P.R. by the abbots and monks of the said Abbey of Saint Honorat of Lérins, whom His Majesty expressly forbids and inhibits from letting the said properties to others than Catholics, or to give shelter to these heretics; neither to continue any longer the coining of money at the said town of Sabourg upon any pretence whatever; in case of disobedience to which His Majesty has commanded that proceedings shall instantly be taken by Le Sieur Mozant, Intendant of Justice, Police, and Finance in Provence, who has been enjoined to carry out the execution of the present decree, and which shall not be delayed in spite of any opposition or appeal whatever. Made at the Council of State, before His Majesty the King, at Versailles, the 1st of July, 1686.

"(Signed) COLBERT." †

This decree, as we see, did not only forbid coining of money by Protestants: it suppressed the establishment itself by a stroke of the pen, and was the punishment which the liberality of the abbey had attracted to itself.

* Religion Protestante Réformée.

† I am indebted for the text of this decree, as also for the act of assignment, to a *Mémoire sur une épisode de l'histoire du Monastère de St. Honorat*, read at the *Congrès Scientifique de France* at Nice, in 1866, by M. Gallois-Montbrun.

From this time the possession of Seborga became a source of loss rather than profit to the monastery, and measures were at once commenced for getting rid of it. Negotiations were opened with the Republic of Genoa, but at the moment when they had agreed to sell for a large sum to be paid in hard cash, Victor Amadeus II., Duke of Savoy, placed his veto on the transaction in his capacity as Vicar of the Empire.* This was evidently a pretext. Victor Amadeus desired himself to become the possessor of Seborga, which he finally bought, in 1697, for the sum of 20,000 crowns. The house of Savoy retained the fief definitely, but the price was never paid.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE PRINCIPALITY OF MONACO.

Monaco after the Roman epoch—The *Fraxinets*—Vicissitudes until 1792—Annexation to France—The Restoration of 1814—Republic of Mentone and Roquebrune—Annexation of 1860—The gambling tables.

THE history of the vicissitudes of Monaco is not especially interesting from the point of view of the historian of Bordighera, but the two localities are too near to one another, and the splendid establishment which now exists

* Leopold I. was Emperor of Germany, but the Western Empire of feudal times existed only in name. However, the right of the Emperor and his Vicars to forbid such cessions of territory as were displeasing to them was, it appears, perfectly legal. Until the re-arrangement of the map of Europe, which followed the French Revolution, these cessions were sheltered under the formula, *Salva fidelitate domini imperatoris.*

in the Principality plays too important a part in the midst of our winter resorts to allow us to pass the place over without a word. So in this chapter I will give a glance at the history of Monaco from the commencement of the Middle Ages to the present time, in order that we may not have to return again to so unsympathetic a subject.

From the death of Charlemagne until about the tenth century, the Rock of Monaco was occupied by the Saracens. It constituted (as did also the *Portus Olivulæ*, now Villefranche, and another place in the Gulf of Sambracie, perhaps San Tropez) one of their *Fraxinets* * or fortified forts, from whence they issued forth upon their piratical expeditions to pillage both friends and enemies throughout the Western Mediterranean. The Genoese, after they had taken posession of it in 1215, laid the foundations of the present castle and the existing fortifications. From this point Monaco became a fortified place of great importance, and whilst nominally belonging to various branches of the Grimaldi family, was wrangled over, besieged, taken, retaken and occasionally occupied by all the various parties who have waged war in these parts. In 1789, when the great revolution burst over France, the three Communes of Port Hercules, Roquebrune and Mentone were under the sceptre of a prince who had lived almost continually in Paris, viz., Honoré III.

The breath of liberty was not long in blowing upon

* The word *Fraxinetum* signifies *a forest of ash.* It is hence very probable that the first and chief naval establishment of the Saracens was on the Gulf of Sambracie, where the flat and wooded coasts, far more than those of Monaco and Villefranche, suggest the name in question.

this microscopic State, and as early as 1790, deputations were sent to Paris demanding a representative government. Honoré refused, which lead to a revolution at Monaco as soon as the French army crossed the Var.

A "National Convention" of the Principality addressed in 1792 a petition to the Convention of Paris for union with France, and the decree of annexation appeared on the 15th February, 1793. From that time up to the Restoration in 1814 Monaco partook of all the vicissitudes of the Republic and the Empire.

On the drawing up of the Treaty of Paris in 1814, this little Principality seemed to have been forgotten, but Talleyrand recollected it at the last moment, and added at the end of an article . . . "And the Prince of Monaco shall be restored to his dominions." (*Et le Prince de Monaco sera réintégré dans ses états.*)

The Protectorate of France, which dated from a convention concluded with Louis XIII. in 1641, was maintained until the Treaty of Vienna in 1815, but in 1817 the Principality placed itself under the protection of the kingdom of Sardinia by the Treaty of Stupinigi. A convention, concluded at the same time, granted to the Sardinian Government the salt and tobacco monopoly, the extradition of criminals, and the administration of the postal service.

Honoré V. succeeded his father and grandfather of the same name and followed in their footsteps. His reign was characterised by exactions of such severity that before long they completely paralysed the life of the country. The working of oil mills, the manufacture of bread and *pâtes alimentaires* (macaroni and the like), and also of

gunpowder and fire-arms and a large number of other industries, became state monopolies.

The productions of the country were hampered by enormous exports which provoked, in a spirit of reprisal on the part of France and the Sardinian Governments, the enforcement of import duties equally burdensome; all of which rendered impossible the exportation of any of the local productions.

Such a state of things could not, however, have lasted for any length of time, even if the revolutionary whirlwind which was blowing over Italy, owing to the temporary liberalism of Pius the IX. in 1847, had not led to the freedom of Mentone and Roquebrune.

The agitation which began at the end of this year ended on the 21st of March, 1848, by a declaration of independence. From that time, in spite of their desire to be annexed to Piedmont, these two continued happily as a Republic, under the protection of Sardinia, until the *plébiscite* of 1860, when they were united to France.

This annexation was legalised from the "Divine Right" point of view, by the payment of a sum of four million francs (160,000*l.*) by the Imperial Government of France to Prince Charles III. The Rock of Monaco and a narrow strip of barren land on the slope of the *Tête de Chien* and the *Agel*: in other words, a territory about two miles long, varying from 150 to 1000 feet in breadth, and inhabited by a little over 1200 souls, is now all that remains to the oldest reigning family in Europe!

So small a domain and so scanty a population could not, it is evident, furnish to Charles III. the enormous

revenues that his predecessors had been able to draw from the almost tropical gardens of Roquebrune and the fertile valleys of Mentone.

But the Grimaldi dynasty was not destined to depart from its old ways, and it was reserved to the Prince to fulfil once more, and even by more startling means, the old popular saying of his hereditary rock:

> " Son Monaco sopra uno scoglio,
> non semino e non raccoglio,
> eppur mangiar voglio!"
>
> " I, Monaco, sit perched where billows rave,
> upon a rock. Alas! no harvest's wave
> for me; I sow nor reap, yet food I crave."
>
> J. Y.

The *Fraxinet* of the Saracen pirates was a legend of the past; the Genoese adventurers, who had made the impregnable fortress of Monaco the headquarters of their depredations for a hundred leagues around, were now but matters of history; the monopoly of cereals and all the iniquitous exactions of the reign of Honoré V. were no longer possible after the fiscal arrangements with France; but, as, with Monaco, whatever else might alter, the necessity of living upon others still remained, it became necessary to discover a new source of revenue, which, in spite of all change of times and manners, might keep up their old traditions. For *Roulette* was coming: a dazzling and fascinating snare was to be spread out before the honest fools, as well as the dishonest knaves of the whole world; a contrivance which, thanks to the enormous sums it would give to the State, would make in a short time the inhabitants of the rocky town the happiest, so far as their *material* life is concerned, of any people under the sun;

for without conscription, without taxes of any kind, the *Monégasques* of the present day have nothing to do but to enjoy the shower of golden rain which falls upon them unceasingly.

The Casino of Monte Carlo, which was fated to exercise so great an influence on the future of the Principality, owes its origin to a rebuff received in 1856 by certain speculators, who conceived the idea of starting some public gaming tables and forming a grand establishment for that purpose on the *Promenade des Anglais* at Nice.

But the Sardinian Government, to its great credit be it said, was inexorable, and instead of giving the desired permission to open a gambling Casino at Nice, they suppressed that which already existed at *Aix les Bains.*

In the face of this unexpected refusal, the interested parties addressed themselves to His Highness, Charles III., who showed himself far more amenable and gave the desired authorisation for thirty years.

The gaming tables were opened to the public at once in a house of a very modest character on the Place du Château, whence they soon removed to the Condamine, returning again a little later to the upper town of Monaco.

But these establishments were purely of a temporary character, for it was specially laid down in the Concession granted to the promotors of the scheme, that the Casino was to be built about three-quarters of a mile to the east of Monaco, on the tableland called *Spélugues*, to which Charles III. gave, in his own honour, the name of " Monte Carlo."

The building was commenced in the spring of 1858, but funds were wanting to finish it quickly: besides the

promoters were disappointed; the scheme, so far, had not answered their expectations.

The indifferent success of an institution which had elsewhere always been the speediest road to a fortune, is not difficult to explain, considering the many obstacles with which it had to contend during the days of its infancy. The fitting-up of the Casino was far from satisfactory, and its frequent removals were most unfavourable to its development.

But the greatest obstacle of all consisted in the inaccessibility of Monaco. To reach it from Nice it was necessary to go by carriage along the Cornice Road (and its most elevated section) by Turbia and Roquebrune, a journey of at least four hours, or else attempt it by sea in the small steamers, for which the weather might not always be favourable.

To make the Casino at Monte Carlo the brilliant establishment which it has now become, two things were necessary—a large capital and the opening of the railway from Nice to Monaco. But for these two elements of success it had not long to wait.

The German Governments decided on suppressing the gambling establishments on the Rhine, thus forcing their proprietors to seek new theatres where they might carry on their immoral pursuits; and thus it happened that at the commencement of 1860 M. François Blanc, who had leased the tables at Homburg, arrived at Monaco and purchased the privileges and properties of the then existing company for the sum of 1,700,000 francs (68,000*l.*) payable in cash.

The buildings were then quickly finished, and the opening of the railway in 1868, reducing the journey to

forty minutes, practically made Monaco a suburb of Nice.

From that time millions have flowed into the cash-boxes of the lessee, allowing him to expend money on all sides with a prodigal hand; thanks to which the Casino at Monte Carlo has become as we see it now, an establishment unique in its luxury and splendour, as in the suffering it draws down upon those brought under its influence.

It remains to be seen, however, to what extent the inhabitants of the Principality have cause to congratulate themselves on harbouring so colossal and dangerous an institution on their territory: it is hardly likely, we fear, to turn out the case of that referred to in Scripture of those who "entertained an angel unawares." Putting on one side all considerations of morality and viewing for a moment only the material side of the question, it is certain that the Casino has brought considerable benefits to the Principality. The inhabitants are not subject to a conscription: they pay no taxes, neither have they any octroi duties or charges whatever.

The administration of the *Cercle des Etrangers*, which is indeed a State within a State, provides for everything: it keeps up the roads and lights them with gas; it charges itself in one word with all the expenses of the State, without speaking of the costly improvements and embellishments which it executes each year; and beyond all this, pays to the Government a percentage on its gross receipts, which gives to the reigning Prince a civil list of several millions of francs per annum.

But these purely material advantages are purchased at the cost of the most terrible moral evils.

In the first place, the poorer classes do not profit greatly

by the riches which the presence of the Casino brings into the place to the extent one might suppose at first sight. The hotels, cafés, shops and commercial establishments of all kinds, which are gathered around the stations of Monte Carlo and the Condamine, belong almost entirely to strangers from other lands: the true Monacotins, subjects of His Highness Prince Charles, their lands once sold that the magnificent buildings of the gambling company and luxurious hotels and villas might be erected upon them, have nothing to gain from the millions squandered at Roulette or *trente-et-quarante.*

But what they do get are:

1. Their town invaded by hordes of gambling strangers.

2. An immoral institution in their midst, constituting a permanent danger, and which drives away all respectable people from the neighbourhood; and

3. Their streets infested by crowds of "fast" strangers, composed of the "rif-raf" of the entire world, in broad cloth and silks and satins.

Here then are some of the results of having a gambling Casino in our midst, which ought to be taken into consideration by the light-hearted Monacotins when they boast of their immunity from the conscription, and their freedom from taxation!

I do not wish to soil my pages with a description of what goes on within the splendid walls of the Casino, or of the class of people one meets in the fairy-like gardens of Monte Carlo. It is, however, necessary to say a few words as to the gambling itself, and also with regard to the arguments which are used for and against the maintenance of this establishment.

Two games only are played at the Casino, *trente-et-quarante,* a game at cards where the minimum stake allowed is twenty francs; and *roulette,* where it is five francs: both are pure games of chance.

Entry to the gaming-rooms, as indeed to the whole of the establishment—reading, concert-rooms, &c.—is entirely free, without any payment whatever. A notice published daily in the Nice and Mentone journals announces emphatically, it is true, "That according to the rules of the *Cercle des Etrangers* at Monte-Carlo, entrance is only allowed to persons provided with tickets, and is forbidden to the inhabitants of the Principality as well as those of the department of the *Alpes-Maritimes,* with the exception of members of the principal clubs." But this regulation, which has been imposed for some years past upon the administration of the Casino by the French Government (uneasy, perhaps, as to the morals and pockets of the inhabitants of Nice and Mentone), is merely a form for appearance sake. Nothing, in fact, is easier than for a Niçois, or even for an inhabitant of the Principality, to evade the regulation and penetrate into the "Salle Turque" itself, where he can sacrifice his fortune at his leisure, and complete the business by retiring afterwards and hanging himself on the celebrated tree called the *caroubier des décavés.*

And turning to the question of the game itself, I may remark that it is difficult to fall into a graver error than to believe it possible to win, with any certainty, large sums at roulette. The fact that the bank realises very large profits *each day* proves beyond controversy that the wind of good fortune is never in favour of the mass of players. Some isolated cases of large winnings no doubt *do* occasionally occur; luck is ever capricious, and fortune

now and then allows some stroke of success; but these are, to use the old and appropriate quotation, *rari nantes in gurgite vasto.*

The game of roulette is composed of two distinct divisions, numbers and *cadres.* Upon the former it is *possible* to gain thirty-five times the value of the stake, this number being so high owing to there being thirty-five chances, *plus* zero, against the player and in favour of the bank. Upon the *cadres* there is less risk; for on *rouge* or *noir*, *pair* or *impair*, *passe* or *manque*, there are the same number of chances for the player as for the bank, but, on the other hand, you cannot gain more than the value of your stake.

It is not, in fact, possible to win with any certainty except by playing the *martingale*, which consists in choosing a *cadre*, and playing resolutely upon it, doubling the stake each time you lose, until that you are backing wins (which it is almost sure to do before long, there being as many chances *for* as *against* the player), upon which you win the total of the series plus one, and may commence again with the minimum stake. But even here the bank takes care to guard itself, for it sets a limit, or rather fixes a maximum stake, which may not be exceeded; and anyone may calculate for himself, *with very little trouble*, how many times it takes, *doubling each time he loses*, to bring his original stake of five francs up to the maximum allowed. We have heard ourselves of runs on one or other colour of five and twenty or even thirty, and ten or twelve is far from uncommon. The old puzzle of the nails in the horse's shoes, beginning with one farthing and doubling on each, and its astonishing result, is a very effective illustration of how quickly a large amount is reached by so very simple a process. But this line of

play is not only looked upon with an unfavourable eye by the *croupiers*, but is too matter-of-fact, and offers too little excitement, to attract the professional player. He requires the excitement that must accompany risk; he plays then on the numbers, makes elaborate combinations, and invents "systems," all absolutely fallacious without doubt, but which, thanks to the stupidity of mankind, always find supporters, who are ever their victims and dupes!

The *salons* of Monte Carlo are then a yawning and bottomless gulf, which is ever swallowing up innumerable fortunes both great and small: sometimes those of millionaires, who play out of their vast riches; sometimes—and this is more frequently the case—of thoughtless and foolish sons, of merchants and others, who come with the forlorn hope of re-establishing themselves, and averting the inevitable bankruptcy, instead of which they precipitate it; sometimes those of absconding cashiers, who know of no other mode of throwing away their ill-acquired riches; sometimes, and especially on Sundays, the hard-earned savings of honest but ignorant workmen, who, tempted by a possible and great gain, sacrifice in an hour the result of weeks of labour!

The question, then, which we have to answer is, Is it right to allow an institution of this character in the immediate neighbourhood of these health-giving wintering resorts, frequented as they are by visitors from all parts of the world? And at no period of its history has this question of the toleration or abolition of the Monaco Casino been so keenly argued as at the present time, and especially during these last few months.*

* Even as I write (June 1882) I see in one of the evening London papers that the Municipal Council of Ventimiglia has unanimously adopted a petition to the Italian Government, praying that it may be suppressed.—A. C. D.

One would have thought at first sight that all respectable people would necessarily be partisans in the endeavour to do away with these gambling-rooms; but sad to say, such is not the case. Strange indeed, one would think, but "no less strange than true," for a good number of worthy and honourable people approve the existence of the Casino.

The arguments which are employed in support of it are indeed weak enough; but I will give a few specimens, with the replies of those who are desirous of sweeping away this plague-spot from the Riviera.

1. It is argued that the Casino makes an excellent use of its great profits: it supports and affords employment to a large number of people, carries out important public works, encourages industry, and gives large sums to various charitable objects; the money which it gains thus profits and brings benefits to humanity which it would not do if it had remained in the hands of those who have lost it.

To which we reply: This does not touch the question. If the proprietors of the Casino make good use of their winnings, so much the better for them; but whether or no, it is nothing to the main point.

2. It is said, the game is a perfectly fair one; the organisation is of such a character that any trickery or dishonesty is impossible, which is more than can be said of the ordinary gambling hells, or even of the *cercles* in the neighbouring towns, however respectable. And further, gambling is an inherent quality of our human nature. Is it not, then, rather a praiseworthy action to offer to gamblers a place where they can indulge their weakness without any fear of being cheated or robbed?

We reply: Honesty of mode does not necessarily imply

that the principle is a right one, or, to reverse the old proverb, "the *means* most certainly cannot justify the *end*." It is well, no doubt, that the croupiers should act honestly; but gambling is either one thing or the other: it is moral or immoral; and if the latter, it cannot be justified by an honest administration.

3. They say the establishment and carrying on of a gambling institution like Monte Carlo is an industry like any other, and therefore ought to be permitted. This industry appeals, it is true, to a vicious propensity, and encourages it; but there are many others not unlike it which not only are free, but receive every encouragement alike from the State as from individuals who would refuse to enter the doors of Monte Carlo. Are not the various stock exchanges in every European city merely great gambling houses recognised and supported by the governments of their respective countries? The great clubs, too, are they not also casinos, whose chief success is frequently due to the gambling which goes on within their doors?

The stock exchanges, we reply, have an object and special work of usefulness, quite apart from any gambling which may be carried on there. The temptations of speculation for the purposes of gain, however regrettable, are the indirect consequences of the rise and fall of stocks and shares, and it would be the duty of an honest Government to put a check on it, if it were *possible*; but the legislature is powerless to interfere.

As to the clubs, they are actually private houses; the law could only touch them by violating one of the first principles which governs the relations between the State and the individual. The French and Italian laws do indeed forbid the playing even in clubs at games at pure

chance, such as those of roulette and *trente-et-quarante;* but how can such laws be practically enforced? But a public Casino, where gambling is the avowed and only object of its existence, is altogether in a different category. An institution of this character has become illegal in all civilised countries; and if the law's arms are not long enough to embrace and repress *all* abuses, surely that is not a reason why it should ignore others of a like character which it has the power to remove entirely.

4. But it is argued, the gambling at the Casino of Monte Carlo is always for *cash*, whilst at the clubs they play on credit, or borrow before leaving the room from usurers, who are frequently the waiters of the establishment, the result being that gambling is far more dangerous at these clubs than at Monaco, because the gambler risks more at the former before he tears himself away from the fascinations of the game. The man, they say, who will think twice before realising his house or selling out his investments, to throw their value upon the green baize at Monte Carlo, will not hesitate in the excitement of a game at his club to borrow fifty pounds in order to continue a game which, with the infatuation of the gambler, he feels sure has only to be prolonged to land him once more a winner. Now, as gambling is an eradicable trait of humanity, is it not wiser, then, to offer to those who have it most strongly developed a place where they are exposed to the fewer dangers?

The answer to which is, that though this may be true of a certain *class* of gamblers, the majority of those who lose their money at Monte Carlo do not frequent great gambling clubs; and besides this, the Casino at Monte Carlo is a school of gambling: it encourages a taste for

play amongst those who otherwise would be ignorant of it, and especially in its immediate neighbourhood; and with regard to the tables at Monte Carlo, its influence is additionally great, owing to the thousands who now visit the Riviera each winter in search of health; indeed, if it did not exist, there would probably be far less gambling at the *cercles* at Nice; the appetite, we know, "grows by what it feeds on." Beyond this, too, is the question of principle. Ought we to hesitate to pull up by the roots a poisonous weed, which we *are* able to reach, because we can see another growing strong and lustily beyond our reach? Gambling is an immoral amusement; that is, is harmful both to the individual and to the State; it must, therefore, be put a stop to wherever it is possible to do so, without troubling about it elsewhere.

Some such, then, as we have been giving above, are the principal arguments which are brought forward on the one side and the other with regard to the question of principle: Is an institution like Monte Carlo right or wrong? Granting the latter, the question now arises, how is it possible to suppress it?

Monaco is an independent State. In spite of the revenue from excise, and the many branches of a State organisation, such as the railway, telegraph, postal service, sale of tobacco, &c., which have been handed over to the French Government by a treaty which is only a measure of administration, the little State preserves its independence. It has not only its own codes, but makes its own laws; and justice is administered in the name of the Prince by special courts. This being the case, the State of Monaco has the same right to exist, and to do what it likes on its own territory, as France or Italy; and if its

Government insists on keeping up the Casino, it would only be possible to put a stop to it by suppressing the Principality itself, which would be an act opposed to the law of nations.

This sounds very plausible, but the argument is a weak one. Politicians are not in the habit of looking at things in such a scrupulous manner when they are anxious to act; for history offers us innumerable examples of interferences far more violent and for less worthy objects; it is not even necessary to go back far into our own century to discover them. Is it not then merely a question as to the willingness of the European Governments to interfere? If several of them were convinced that the public gambling tables at Monte Carlo were intolerable, and a danger to their own subjects, and not to be put up with any longer, it would not be long, we take it, before the Prince of Monaco learnt what political scruples are worth!

The real difficulty is not here then, but it lies in the important and numerous interests which are bound up in the existence of the Casino. Enormous sums, belonging to perfectly honest individuals, have been invested in hotels, in houses, in shops, and commercial undertakings of all kinds upon this little Principality, and the ruin of a great number of people whose only crime has been to try and gain a livelihood where it was possible to do so, would be the inevitable result of a sudden suppression of the gambling rooms. How to guard the interests of these people?—how to indemnify them, unless we were as rich as the Casino itself?—these are important questions. The difficulty, no doubt, is a serious one, but it has been satisfactorily solved elsewhere; for why is it impossible to do *here* what has already been

done in similar cases at Baden, at Homburg, and Saxon les Bains?

Besides, *De minimis non curat prætor*, and if the Governments of some of the great powers would only decide to take, in harmony with France, who is more especially interested in the matter, a firm and vigorous line of action towards the Principality, it is not the interests of a few landlords, or a certain number of shopkeepers or hotel proprietors, which should be allowed to weigh down the scale against those hundreds of families from all parts of the world who are yearly plunged into ruin (and often into mourning as well), owing to a great public gambling hell on one of the loveliest headlands on the always lovely Riviera!

The former are after all but a small and local minority; the latter, the victims, an enormous and ever-increasing majority, whose misfortunes are only bounded by the confines of the civilised world.

Merchants made bankrupt, the bread-winners of happy families ruined, their wives and children beggared, desperate gamblers seeking suicide as their only resource: such are the pretended blessings which this magnificent institution brings to the very door of our winter health resorts: an institution which has been happily described by a pithy writer as *Le paradis du Diable!*

CHAPTER IX.

THE FOUNDATION OF BORDIGHERA.

State of Europe and Liguria in the middle of the fifteenth century—Borghetto San Niccolò—Reasons which led to the emigration—Cape St. Ampelio and the *Bordigue* which has disappeared—Retirement of the sea and the formation to which it has given place—Deed for the foundation of Bordighera in 1470—Second deed in 1471—Development of the new Commune—The Knights of St. John at La Ruota—Great commercial companies—Sale of Ventimiglia and its towns to the *Banco di San Giorgio*—Return to the Republic.

After the unpleasant scenes which we have just contemplated, it will be an agreeable change to the reader to turn to the latter portion of the fifteenth century, and go with us up the peaceful and secluded valley which opens about three-quarters of a mile to the west of Cape St. Ampelio.

After a little more than half-an-hour's walk, charmingly placed at the head of the valley and half-way up the hill upon the right, he will perceive a little fortified village, whose inhabitants, by emigration, are preparing to take the first step towards founding Bordighera. Let us pause for a moment, and take a look at the state of Europe and the surrounding countries at this time, viz. the autumn of 1470.

Louis XI. was King of France and Edward IV. of England; Paul II. was Pope, and the Eastern Empire had come to an inglorious end by the taking of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453; Frederick III. was Emperor of Germany, and John Guttenberg had invented printing at Strasburg in 1440. The Republics were flourishing in Italy: that of Genoa was in the fulness of its power and

magnificence, and possessed the whole of Liguria as far as the Nervia; Ventimiglia had nominally belonged for some years past to Francis Sforza, Duke of Milan, but in reality governed itself as a free town, under the protection of the powerful family of the Grimaldi, who reigned at Monaco.

The Communes which now together form the Canton of Bordighera already existed, and were considered as *Villæ Vintimilienses*, with the exception of Seborga, which belonged, as we have seen, to the Abbey of Lérins. San Remo, united for more than a century with the Genoese Republic, was constantly disputing with its suzerain on questions of taxation; the village of Colla was already a strong castle belonging to San Remo, but the hospitals of Ospedaletti and the Ruota did not yet exist.

The Saracen corsairs, driven out of the *Fraxinets* by the Counts of Provence and chased from the seas by the Genoese galleys, had left these waters. All Liguria rejoiced in a respite from warfare and revolt.

It was during this time of peace and comparative prosperity, after the struggles and distractions of which this country had been the theatre ever since the fall of the Roman Empire, that thirty-two families from the *Bourg* or *Castrum Sancti Nicholai* became filled with a desire to leave their narrow valley and wall-encircled village and found a new town amid the invigorating breezes, and surrounded by the unrivalled view which one gets from the Cape St. Ampelio.

But before entering upon the details of this event, it will be interesting to cast a bird's-eye view over the topographical conditions of the place which had such attractions for the inhabitants of Borghetto. The configuration of

the coast must have been very different then to what it is at the present day. In all probability the slopes of the Cape were washed on three sides by the sea, which must have penetrated even to the very foot of the hill to the east, entirely covering the low-lying lands which are known to-day under the name of *Orti Sottani*: thus forming a creek or *bordigue*, which served no doubt as a sort of harbour for the operations of some fishermen.

Here, as at so many other parts on the Eastern coast of Italy, we find that the sea has slowly but regularly retired; but this phenomenon does not point however to any volcanic subsidence of the soil, but only to the steady action of a current which, running always from west to east, throws up again on the shore the shingle and *débris* brought down into the sea by the mountain rivers of the west, viz. the Var, the Roya, and the Nervia. These *débris* accumulate especially in those places where they are checked by the hollows and indentations of the shore, or where thrown up by the regular action of the gentle ripple of the waves, the result of which is a gradual effacing of the irregularities of the coast.

There does not exist, so far as I know, any written proof of the existence of the creek or *Bordigue*,* which no doubt suggested the name of Bordighera. This *Bordigue* is not, however, merely the offspring of the imagination of an historian seeking for the etymology of a name; its history is written is indelible characters on the soil of the place.

* See note, page 124. The modern French signification of the word *Bordigue* is a creek provided with stakes and nets for the purpose of catching fish. Mr. Bellows (whose dictionary is so well known), however, informs me that this term is also used for a store-tank for fish.—A. C. D.

It is sufficient to dig to the depth of only a few feet anywhere round the foot of the hill, below the remains of the old *Strada Romana*, to find the *beach*, just as it has been buried by these many layers of *débris* and rubbish.

The sand still emits, when freshly dug up, the smell of the sea; it is salt to the taste, and abounds in recent shells, and I have myself turned up pieces of the claws of crabs in a perfect state of preservation.

It is very difficult to say precisely at what period this silting-up commenced and the sea to retire, but it is reasonable to infer that the surf still beat at the foot of the hill when the Aurelian Way was opened—that is about 2000 years back; for if the plain or any part of it had existed at this time, the Roman engineers would not have planned their route on the hill side, but would most certainly have run it alongside the shore like their modern successors. At the commencement of our century the sea came up to within a hundred yards or so of the present shore; the Cornice Road was traced on the strand itself, along the edge of the cultivated land. From which we may infer that the sea is gradually retreating at the rate of nearly a yard a year. This phenomenon is confirmed also by official documents.

From the very earliest time, owners of property having a frontage on the beach were in the habit of advancing their fences and enclosing, for the purpose of cultivation, the land which had been gradually formed by the retiring sea. The statutes of the federation of the "Eight Towns" imposed the payment of an annual rate upon these proprietors, which, however, did not constitute a title of possession; but in 1827 the position of these *terreni arenili* was finally regulated by an Act of the Communal Council

(which I shall refer to in detail later on), wherein we read that—

". . . The limited space available for dwellings within the walls of this commune, and the increasing population, led many of the inhabitants, during long years past, to erect buildings outside the walls and along the adjacent beach, taking advantage of *the gradual retreat of the sea*, which our ancestors considered as a special provision for this most important object."

We are in ignorance as to the exact distance the sea had retreated at the time of the foundation of Bordighera, but it is very probable that the Cape projected much further into the sea *then* than it does at the present time. Indeed, it is even probable that the creek formed by this projection (the height of the Cape sheltering it also from the strong winds from the east) gave it almost the character of a little harbour.

Coasting, by means of small vessels from port to port, was always the chief means of communication and transport along the whole length of the Ligurian shore, prior to the opening of the carriage way, which we must remember was not complete until the year 1828. Naturally, the surrounding villages of Vallebuona, Borghetto, Sasso, and others would require a port where they might ship without trouble their varied productions, and none could have been so handy in every respect for this purpose as the natural harbour afforded by Cape St. Ampelio.

The abbey of Lérins especially would make great use of such a landing place in its communications with its establishment at Seborga.

Besides, the very terms of the deed by which the thirty-two families associated themselves together to found Bordighera seem to point to the fact that the site of the

new commune was already inhabited. The deed mentions *a well,—terram . . . sicut stat lo pozo,*—and it speaks of the place as already bearing another name than that of Cape St. Ampelio,—which had served to designate it during the whole of the Middle Ages—*loco dicto la Burdighetta:* two points of detail which seem to justify the presumption that this point of the coast was then occupied by a little cluster of dwellings, without doubt the huts of some fishers, attracted to the spot by the proximity of a creek, convenient for mooring in and putting off their boats. Perhaps also, in addition, there may have been a humble hostelry to give shelter and refreshment to those pilgrims who visited the cenotaph of the saint.

It was upon the 2nd of September, 1470, that the thirty-two families* associated themselves together for the purpose of founding Bordighera, by a deed, which was signed by the senior member of each in the Church of St. Nicholas at Borghetto, and which was drawn up by the notary Antonius Corrubeus, of Ventimiglia.

I will not trouble my readers with the text, or even a translation of this document,† but merely mention that the former may be found in the French edition of this work.

In the year following, and for reasons of which we are ignorant, the colonists wished to renew their agreement by a second deed, which was signed on the 28th of June, 1471, on a stone table, *supra banchetto lapideo,* placed on the Cape, *in capite.*

* Thirty-one names in all; the second deed, signed the following year, contains one more name, and which has without doubt been dropped from this in copying it.

† The manuscript was communicated to me by the family of the late M. J. B. Viale, Judge (*Pretore*) of Bordighera.

It is not worth while to give the text of this second deed, which, save in some insignificant particulars, is identical with that which we have before referred to, but the concluding paragraphs somewhat differ.

From these deeds * we infer that the first village at Bordighera was a sort of castle, whose exterior bastion formed at the same time the walls of the houses, which had all their *façades* fronting a central court, as we still see at Sasso.

We are completely ignorant of the dimensions of this castle, but they cannot have been considerable, if we may judge at all by those of the houses, some of which were twenty-three feet in length by eighteen feet broad, and close upon eleven feet in height; they were in fact nothing more than rooms under a shed.

It is difficult to determine with any exactness where were placed the walls which shut in these primitive dwellings; but the mention in the deeds: *a via publica versus mare*, and the fact that the square bastion of the old cemetery and the walls which are close to the *porta della Maddalena*, all of which appear to point to a period more remote than the rest of the fortifications, authorises us in concluding that the village of Bordighera of 1471 occupied the south-east angle of the modern town.

The new commune developed rapidly, and we find a proof of it in a resolution passed by the Parliament of Ventimiglia, which granted as early as the year 1472, a sum of money towards building the walls of Bordighera.†

* I am indebted for this second document, as well as for many others which will be found further on, to a valuable collection of manuscripts bearing upon the local history of Bordighera, which M. le Chevalier Piana, Mayor of the town, kindly placed at my disposal.

† Rossi—*Storia di Ventimiglia.*

Towards the end of the fifteenth century, and probably a little after the foundation of Bordighera, the *Frères Hospitaliers* of St. John of Jerusalem, who had been settled in the Island of Rhodes ever since the year 1310, founded a colony or village at Colla, which took in consequence the name of *Colla di Rodi*, and shortly after, without doubt, they built the establishments at Ospedaletti and the Ruota, whose names indicate their origin.

This remarkable order, driven from Palestine in 1188, and thus prevented from carrying out the purpose for which it was originally formed, that of receiving pilgrims and providing for their wants in Jerusalem, had now devoted itself to the extermination of the pirates of the Mediterranean.

The Algerian corsairs had succeeded the Saracens, and their ravages upon the coast of Italy, France, and Spain had rendered navigation almost impossible. Hariadan Barbarossa, usurper of the throne of Algiers in 1518, and who was considered after Doria the greatest sailor of the day, personally conducted a landing and attack upon Bordighera, but the chroniclers tell us that he was repulsed. The presence of these pirates in the Gulfs of Genoa and Lyons probably determined the Knights of Rhodes to settle at Ospedaletti, but it does not appear that they remained for any length of time. The Bay of Ruota was as shallow as it was unprotected, especially from the west wind, and did not offer sufficiently good anchorage for their ships; so that before very long they transferred their establishments to Villafranca, which Charles the Good, Duke of Savoy, granted to them in the year 1527, especially with the object of putting down piracy along the shores of the Riviera. But here also

the stay of the knights was of short duration, for in 1530 they moved again to the island of Malta, which was given them by Charles V. of Spain.

During the two centuries which followed its foundation, Bordighera or *Burdighetta*,* as it was then called, followed the fortunes of Ventimiglia, as did the other seven communes which formed the *Villæ Vintimilienses*. Thus, they passed for a short time, towards the end of the century, under the dominion of Charles VIII. of France, to return again to Genoa in 1505; but shortly afterwards they were the object of a curious sale, a foreshadowing, perhaps, of what was to occur to their neighbour, Monaco, 400 years later: the Republic sold Ventimiglia and the dependent towns to a great financial institution, the Bank of San Giorgio! This great commercial company was one of several which were the fruits of the anarchy that reigned throughout Europe at the end of the Middle Ages.

Without laws, with nowhere a firm government, commerce was utterly unprotected. The seas, infested by ruthless pirates,† made navigation for shipping, even

* The name of *Bordighera* has evidently the same derivation as that of *Bordeaux* (*Burdigala*), but these names have neither of them a Latin origin. Like *bord* or *bordigue*, they are derived from some Gothic word signifying *creek* or *gulf*. It might be possible also to trace them from the Ligurian word *boding*, without bottom, that is, "very deep." (Celesia—*Dell' antichissimo Idioma dei Liguri*), from whence also has come the name of *Po* (*Padanus*).

† And these dangers not only arose from the corsairs of Tunis and Algiers, but from what in later days was known as "privateering." For there is ample evidence to prove that the rival republics of Genoa and Venice, and the petty princes of the Italian peninsula, were only too ready to license armed vessels of their subjects to prey upon the commerce of a neighbour. We find, amongst others, reference to this in some of Shakespeare's plays, and he, we must not forget, lived about this time, and is as a rule wonderfully correct in his local incidents and allusions. In *Twelfth Night*, it may be remembered that Antonio, the sea captain, who rescues Sebastian, is recognised by the Duke as having formerly commanded one of these vessels. Indeed, at first

along the coast, almost an impossibility, except when sailing in company; and on land, the depredations of *banditti* rendered many of the highways impassable; whilst pillage of merchandise and wholesale destruction of crops, the inevitable accompaniment of the incessant local wars, the great curse of that day, went on almost continuously. Merchants then were powerless to carry on their trade *alone* under such conditions; they therefore associated themselves together and formed companies, which were less intended, like those of our own time, to make a large return on their capital, as to render trade possible, by protecting their vessels by armed cruisers, and to so organise commerce by a collective action as to be able to influence the varying politics of the day.

Thus were founded over the whole of Europe powerful trading institutions, the most remarkable examples of which are to be found in the East Indian Companies—French, Dutch, and above all the English—which, founded in the year 1600, for the space of over two hundred years ruled absolutely over one of the largest and richest provinces in the world.

Each industrial and agricultural centre, each seaport possessed an institution of this character, of a greater or less degree of importance. Ventimiglia had one in the

he taxes him with being a pirate, a charge which Antonio indignantly denies. The whole dispute may be found in Act v. Scene i., and it is interesting as showing how distinct were these privateers from the much dreaded pirates, though both appear to have infested the Adriatic and Mediterranean. But it is evident that the former warred mainly, if not entirely, from a political motive, or perhaps, like Drake and Raleigh at the same period, but in other seas, whose object was not only as good patriots to harass the Spaniards in every possible manner, but also to relieve them of their dollars whenever the opportunity offered!—A. C. D.

twelfth century sufficiently powerful to inspire a certain respect even from Count Otho, as it compelled him to swear fidelity at the compromise of 1135, which was signed after the sieges of St. Agnes and Dolceacqua.*

But of all the companies organised in Liguria, none approached in importance to that founded by some merchants of Genoa about the year 1316,† and which, under the name of the Bank of San Giorgio, took a proud and important position towards the end of that century : thanks to the fact that the Republic farmed to it many of the most valuable sources of revenue.

This singular institution, placed under the direction of eight administrators and a council composed of a hundred of the leading citizens, was not long in assuming that always awkward position, *un état dans l'état.* The Republic was often short of money, and in order to procure it, sold its distant possessions to the Bank, which after a time by these means became possessed of Corsica, the town of Sarzana, and colonies in the Levant. In the eighteenth century it was in a condition so extremely prosperous, as to be enabled to lend the State fifteen millions of livres, in order to furnish the sinews of war against the Austrian invasion of 1746. But this loan almost paralysed the Bank, and the loss of Corsica, coming soon afterwards, completed its ruin ; for a panic took place, which, though soon tided over, prevented San Giorgio from ever rising again to its former splendour. Reduced by these misfortunes to an ordinary banking house, San Giorgio only lingered on to our own day, in order, a few years ago, to end in a dis-

* *Quando compagna Vintimilii renovabitur hoc idem juramentum ego et filii mei renovabimus.* (Rossi—*Storia di Ventimiglia.*)

† Gazzio—*Compendio della Storia di Genova.*

astrous failure. In 1514, Ventimiglia and its dependent towns were sold by the Government of the Doge, *magnificis dominis protectoribus comperarum Sancti Giorgi.* The possession by the Bank of this portion of Western Liguria continued for forty-eight years, which were for these towns a time of neglect, coupled with very lax government. The only event occurring during this period which deserves to be specially alluded to was the barbarous sack of Ventimiglia in the year 1525, by the troops of the Constable de Bourbon, who was fighting in the service of Charles V.

In the year 1559, the treaty of Cateau - Cambrésis once more gave peace to Europe, and in a short time the finances of the Genoese Republic became so flourishing that it was able to regain possession of Ventimiglia in 1562.

The return once more to the authority of Genoa signalised for Ventimiglia and the neighbouring towns the commencement of the period of peace and prosperity which lasted until the invasion of Liguria by Charles Emmanuel I. of Savoy. For this ambitious Prince coveted Ventimiglia and the valley of the Roya, owing to the great advantage which the latter offered for opening up a new and direct route (by reason of the facilities for making a good road), between the "county" of Nice and Piedmont; and considering himself, thanks to an alliance with France and Venice, sufficiently strong to measure himself with the Republic, seized hold of a worthless pretext to declare war. We have not space here to follow the varying vicissitudes of this campaign, which pertains rather to the history of Genoa ; but it will be sufficient to say that Prince Victor entered Liguria in April 1625, at the head of very consi-

derable forces, by the valley of the Impero, and advanced as far as the Cape of Bordighera.

Ventimiglia was determined to resist, and called out the militia of the dependent towns to the number of 8000 men;* but the representatives of the Republic, who had been sent to direct the defence, considered that it was not in a fit state to sustain a siege, and decided to capitulate, negotiations for which were carried on at Bordighera.

But the fortune of war once more turned in favour of Genoa, owing to the succour she received from Spain, and a treaty was signed at San Remo in September of the same year, by which Ventimiglia was again restored to the Republic.

The remainder of the century offers no events worth particularizing except those which form the subject of the following chapter. Victor Amadeus II. followed the same policy as his father, waging a continual warfare against the province with the hope of annexing Dolceacqua, Penna, and other positions amongst the mountains, but these local campaigns do not appear to have had any influence on the prosperity of the towns upon the coast.

* This total must be exaggerated by the chroniclers. If Bordighera, with a population of 1000 inhabitants, was not able to place more than *a hundred and thirty* combatants in the field, it is very difficult to believe that the eight little communes together could place *eight thousand*. The total of 800 is much more probable.

CHAPTER X.

THE EMANCIPATION OF THE COMMUNES.

Harassing taxation by Ventimiglia—Laws on fishing and petition of the fishermen—Monopoly of corn, &c., and petition with regard to same—Petitions as to munitions of war—Systematic rejection of all by the authorities of Ventimiglia—Camporosso takes the initiative in the separation—Agitation at Bordighera—Conciliatory policy of the Republic's Commissioner—Decree of emancipation and its acceptance of the Communes.

THERE is one point at least, which the student of history notices, as common to almost all revolutions, whether great or small, whether taking place on the banks of the Seine or the Roya; and that is, that it has always been the oppression, the exactions, or the cruelty of those in authority, be they kings or Committees of Public Safety, which have provoked the people to rise against them. These, never doubting they had the power, have always sought in the first place to obtain justice by lawful means; they made humble representations to their masters, but the Sovereign or the Council, or what not, blinded by the pride of power, and ignoring the new requirements which the progress of civilisation had created in the lower ranks of the people, have ever opposed a systematic refusal to all appeals. Then, and then only, when their constitutional demands have been contemptuously refused, the masses, powerful from their passion and unity, break the yoke and teach their rulers, when it is too late to profit by the lesson, that there is a certain limit beyond which men will not tolerate with impunity the violation of their rights.

And it was not otherwise with the *Villæ Vintimilienses.*

Crushed by their suzerain, ruined by onerous taxes, deprived even of the necessities of life—thanks to the monopolies which the State created as a means of revenue from its own citizens—and excluded from any real participation in the affairs of government, their representatives in the Parliament being a decided minority,—their position at the commencement of the seventeenth century had become intolerable.

From the year 1502, Ventimiglia had (with others equally vexatious), imposed on the dependent towns a stringent law on fishing—*Tractatus novus gabellæ piscium*, which forced the fishermen not only to take all their fish to Ventimiglia, but obliged them to sell it also at a tariff fixed by the Government, and always to give the preference to Ventimiglian buyers, whilst at the same time they were compelled to hand over one-fifth of the receipts as a sort of royalty or tithe.

We give an extract from this law, translated into English:

"They have decreed that all and each of the fishermen, of whatever degree, fishing and taking fish in the sea, either by lines or by nets, if they land the said fish on the territory of Ventimiglia. . . they are commanded to sell to the citizens and inhabitants of Ventimiglia and its jurisdiction; neither may they sell to strangers whilst the citizens are desirous of buying. . . . Also it is decreed that all and each of the fishermen are bound to surrender to the township of Ventimiglia a fifth part of the price (or value) of the said fish. . . ."

In June 1558, the fishermen of Bordighera addressed a petition to the authorities of Ventimiglia, from which I give an extract, translated from the original document:

"Most Honourable Gentlemen,—

"Some of the fishermen of Burdighetta desire in all humility to express to you, that owing to the smallness of the territory they occupy, the hardness of the times, and their lack both of the means of living and of commerce, they being thus in great poverty, have, as did their predecessors before them, betaken themselves to fishing, &c. This having become known to the city of Ventimiglia, they have been obliged to pay, under the pretext of a tax or duty, a fifth part of all they receive; besides which, at the present time, those of Ventimiglia have prosecuted certain of the Bordighera fishermen for having sold fish out of the jurisdiction, as laid down by the Acts of 1502 and 1514, which ordered that all fishermen should carry their fish into Ventimiglia and sell it on the *Chiappa*, &c."

This request, like many others, presented one after another during the whole of the century, received, as one might expect, only a refusal. But the question of the fishing was not the only hardship which had to be borne by Bordighera and the sister (dependent) Communes; all the productions of the country were taxed in proportions which would astonish the farmers of our day, whilst the exercise of every sort of industry was monopolised for the benefit and profit of the citizens of Ventimiglia.

The monopoly of the sale of grain and the limitation of the manufacture of bread to certain contractors, which had no slight resemblance to the *monopoly of cereals* at Monaco later on, led, towards the commencement of the seventeenth century, to a number of petitions on the part of "the men of Burdighetta," some extracts from which I cannot refrain from placing before my readers. And I must crave forgiveness here as to the number of these quaint old documents which I have inserted; my plea being that they have a valuable historic interest, on account of the information they give us as to the social state of the country and the everyday life of the inhabitants at that time.

Here then is a petition from the local administration of Bordighera to the Syndics of Ventimiglia, from which we

learn that in March 1619 the population of the Commune numbered about one thousand inhabitants.

I give below a free translation of this petition, which may be found in the French edition of this work:

"Most Excellent Signori,—

"Signor Giovanni Battista di Franchi, the Commissioner, &c., having visited the town of Burdighetta, &c., has found amongst other things that in this locality the bread made is worse than bad, it being black and of inferior quality, extremely unwholesome and harmful, not only to the inhabitants themselves, but to the numerous persons daily arriving here from other parts: the place having a population of some thousand souls or thereabouts, the majority of whom are chiefly sailors and fishermen of very small means. The afore-mentioned Commissioner feels convinced that this is entirely due to there being no *mestrali* * in the above-named place, which depends solely on those of Ventimiglia, &c. The officials and agents of the said district of Burdighetta throw themselves, therefore, upon the kindness of your esteemed and honoured *Signorie*, entreating you of your goodness to sanction this decree, &c."

This prayer for a consideration of their case received only an evasive reply: "The question would be examined." But no satisfaction having been given them, and the state of affairs remaining unchanged, the inhabitants of Bordighera returned to the charge in August 1633, with a touching and interesting petition, from which we learn, amongst other facts, some details as to the state of communication then existing between the two towns.

The point of this new petition was something like the following:

* The *mestrali*—in this case "sellers" of corn or flour—were the merchants who had the privilege of selling to the public the commodities monopolised by the townships: a position analogous to that of the tobacconists of the present day in France and Italy.

"Most Respected Signori,—

"The town of Burdighetta is inhabited by poor fishermen and sailors, three-fourths of whom live on a mere pittance, and buy their bread of small retail bakers, neither sowing nor reaping anything upon which they might live, subsisting only upon the small profits they make by fishing and seafaring.

"It has always been the custom for the last ninety years,—indeed, beyond that time there is no recollection to the contrary,—that the agents of that town annually sell the monopoly of bread-making in the open market to persons who undertake to provide bread for the use of the aforesaid town, together with the grain from which it is made, as has ever hitherto been the custom; a custom established by Monsignore Marcello Invrea and confirmed by sundry acts passed, &c. . . .

"Everyone intending to make bread must have his name inscribed for that purpose, neither is he able to make bread or anything else, save from grain procured from the magazine established at Ventimiglia, under penalty, &c. . . .

"And because, most noble Signori, there are between Burdighetta and Ventimiglia two wide rivers and two torrents, which frequently delay communication for ten days, or at least render it difficult; there are times when neither wheat nor anything else is to be obtained: And further also, it sometimes happens in times of scarcity that wheat is refused to our bakers, on the plea that the magazine is empty and without grain; whereas, our city, if provisioned by private individuals, need never be in want of bread, and would not be dependent upon your own (where provisions alone can be obtained from the aforesaid bakers), and thus a famine may be averted:

"We therefore appeal for help at the feet of your most excellent Lordships, throwing ourselves upon your kindness and clemency, humbly supplicating, &c. &c. . . ."

But still the same result.

And now we come upon a petition whose charming *naïveté* compels me to place an English translation *in extenso* before my readers; besides which it contains an allusion to the new church, the construction of which had evidently been undertaken about this time, and which it was intended should replace, as a more worthy building, the little primitive chapel built by the first colonists on

the site of the present "Casa Palanca." This church became later on the Oratory of St. Bartholomew.

"Most Excellent and Honourable Lords,—

"As your Excellencies are well aware, the district of Burdighetta represents one of the principal valleys in your Lordships' jurisdiction, not on account of its wealth, for it is a very poor locality, but owing to the extraordinary faith and devotion it has always shown; also, from the fact that it is situated upon the sea-coast and in a position more exposed than any other promontory in all Liguria; it has consequently been more liable to receive the first brunt of the attacks of corsairs and pirates; thus covering by its defence on the west side all the tract of coast to Ventimiglia, at least three miles in length, as well as the whole coast beyond as far as Monaco; and on the eastern side, all the hills and coast line as far as the Cape of San Remo: And as, by the Divine goodness, there are in that town as many as one hundred and thirty fighting men of valour both in sea and land engagements, and not inferior to those of any other inhabitants of Liguria: and whereas, on account of the sterility of the soil, the poverty of the sea, the heavy taxation of three hundred crowns annually paid to your city of Ventimiglia, and the large debts incurred by private individuals who live in so great misery and destitution that the larger portion of the inhabitants go barefoot and almost naked, subsisting upon herbs and drinking water, and exposed to the inclemencies of wind and sea, of heat, and cold, and rain,—as if they had been so many beasts of the field,—whilst still they are orderly and well-behaved citizens, of good manners and religious; so much so, indeed, that they have pinched and denied themselves even of their scanty supply of bread, encountering hunger in order that they may build their church, which is now one of the handsomest in the neighbourhood, &c. . . .

"Further, about eight and thirty years ago the men of this town were furnished by your honourable Republic with arms and artillery for the seasonable defence of the city of Ventimiglia, of the other towns of the coast and of this town itself,—a precaution which at that time appeared necessary, and this defence was always made with promptitude and courage; and for their maintenance, as well as for arms and ammunition, according to the custom of the times, they were always aided by the said city of Ventimiglia with regard to powder, timber, and trenching tools, as can even now be proved by the public records of the said city. But now, need having arisen for the repair of many things,

conformable with an order and decree issued to Francesco Molinaro and Gaspar Rainero, Consuls of the said city, which is now brought before us, these Consuls having referred the matter to the Parliament of the City, in order that the rates might be proportionally lowered,—as was customary in these requirements on the contingency of the place being invaded by Corsairs who infest our coast,—they were not only left without help, but they received such a repulse that they were provoked, contrary to their own inclination, which had never been to quarrel or complain of the said city, to send Stephen Rainero, their Syndic, to your illustrious Lordships, that he might relate to you truthfully and respectfully what is here related, and at the same time make supplication that you would vouchsafe so to arrange matters that this city may, in conformity with established usage, and to meet present emergencies, provide whatever that Captain orders: as Don Stephen, Syndic, humbly petitions, relying upon the kindness of your illustrious Lordship, to whom, &c. . . ."

This letter does not bear any date, but the period is fixed by the curtly official negative which was its only answer, and which was dispatched on the 23rd of March 1622.

It is not worth our while to go on multiplying indefinitely these touching addresses or repeat similar instances. Those which we have already placed before our readers are sufficient to show that the position of the Communes at this time was such that they could only pray for some propitious chance which might enable them to throw off the now unbearable yoke of Ventimiglia. And it was not long before the opportunity presented itself: the cord was already stretched to the breaking point, and the slightest further strain alone was wanting to bring about a fracture.

However, it was not Bordighera after all, but Camporosso, which had the privilege of giving the signal for resistance against the common enemy: besides too, she

had a special grievance of her own against her Ventimiglian masters.

During the war of 1672, the Genoese Republic sent a body of troops to protect Ventimiglia against the forces of Victor Amadeus I., who was anxious to obtain command of the valley of the Roya. These troops were garrisoned for some time at Camporosso, but on the Commune making a claim for indemnity for the expenses they had incurred in respect of the Genoese battalions, their demand was most curtly rejected, in spite of the especial justness of the demand.

This unexpected refusal to so just a claim was the last straw on the back of the long-suffering Commune, and raised its inhabitants to a pitch of irritation. Public meetings were held to protest, and the word "emancipation" was pronounced. Under such circumstances, the new idea could not fail to become popular; so on the 14th of December, 1682, the Commune addressed to the Supreme Senate of Genoa the following prayer, from which we give an extract in an English form:

"Most Noble Lords,—

"The district of Camporosso and its inhabitants, being continually burdened with imposts laid upon them by the agents of the community of Ventimiglia, the said agents compelling the district and its inhabitants to take their share in defraying the expenses which only affect the benefit and convenience of the said city of Ventimiglia; and being desirous of separating themselves in matters concerning the expenses of the said community and city of Ventimiglia, and paying only such a share as may suffice for their own wants; hereby pray your Lordships that they may be rated a specific sum, as they may be able to afford, by the captinate of that city, and may be freed from the imposts continually laid upon them, and from the disputes which are constantly arising in consequence of the aforesaid expenditure and ever-increasing taxation: in which hope we join, &c. . . ."

This act of Camporosso would probably have borne no fruit if it had not found imitators in the sister Communes; but the agitation promptly spread to Bordighera, where the discontent was even more keenly accentuated by the Fishing Tax which was levied on this locality, by reason of its being almost exclusively inhabited by fishermen, but the remaining six Communes were not slow in following so inspiriting and contagious an example.

The Senate of Genoa soon found itself in the presence of eight demands for administrative separation from the eight Communes dependent upon the Captinate of Ventimiglia. But these Communes did not claim political independence, only internal autonomy; in other words, their cry was that so familiar to our ears in the present day: "Home Rule," or the right of internal government in their own way and the administration of their own finances; whilst offering at the same time to continue to contribute to the just expenses of the "*Capitanato* and the town of Ventimiglia," but only the proportion which fairly might fall to each Commune. In spite of the strong and natural opposition of the town of Ventimiglia, the Senate could not refuse a demand so fair, so moderately put forward, and which practically did no sort of injury to the Republic, and the decree of emancipation was not long in appearing. It was dated the 11th of February, 1683.

But certain provisions of this decree relative to the boundaries of the various townships and the division of the public revenues, failed to meet with the approval of the Communes, and protracted negotiations ensued. It was over this dispute that printing was made use of for the first time, probably, in this part of Italy. The Re-

public, honestly anxious to bring all parties into harmony, sent a special Commissioner to the various towns, who was successful in his efforts, but only, it appears, after the lapse of some years, in reconciling the opposing interests of the town of Ventimiglia and the Communes.

In the meantime, however, these latter had already taken advantage of the decree of the 11th of February to grasp their autonomy. A notarial act, accepting the principle of the separation, was signed by the authorities of each locality, and below is given a translation of that of Bordighera:

IN THE NAME OF GOD, AMEN.

"In the year 1683, on Thursday, the 4th of March, at Burdighetta, in the oratory of St. Bartholomew, in the presence of Messrs. Francesco Bianchero (son of Giovanni), Thelamo Gerbaldo (son of Agostino), Stefano Alberteri (son of Bartolomeo), and Giovanni Batt. Arrigo (son of Francesco), *Agents*,* and with them, Giovanni Batt. Gerbaldo (son of Marco), and Antonio Bianchero, *Consuls*,* of the above-mentioned place, who, having been informed of the decree made by the most excellent Magistrate of the communities on the 11th of February last, granting permission for the separation of the villages (of Camporosso, San Biagio, Soldano, Vallecrosia, Sasso, Vallebuona, Borghetto, and Burdighetta (otherwise Bordighera), hereafter referred to as "The Eight Towns"), from the city (*civitas*) of Ventimiglia: By this present act state and declare that they accept the separation, with the protest, that in the articles to be drawn up with regard to their taxation, this place (of Burdighetta) be charged only a just rate in proportion to its territory and appurtenances, and not at the rate of the taxes raised from it heretofore.

"And further, that if it be necessary to have a deputy, they elect and depute Benedetto Gerbaldo (son of Agostino), here present (with the condition that he does not undertake that post unless the said place (Burdighetta) is charged in every respect as has been laid down

* "Agents" and "Consuls" were the titles of the delegates hitherto representing the eight villages at Ventimiglia.—A. C. D.

above), so that this place may have an opportunity of protesting, not only as above-mentioned (i. e. through its deputy), but in every other better way, as may be necessary, reserving to itself an appeal to the most Serene Senate (of Genoa), or whatever may appear best, in the case of any grievance arising as to the before-mentioned matters.

"Given in the year and day as above, in the presence of Bartholomew Rainero (son of Pietro) and G. M. Palanca (son of Giovanni), witnesses to the above.

"GASPARE NOARO, *Notary*."

CHAPTER XI.

THE CONFEDERATION OF THE EIGHT TOWNS.

The Eight Communes: their boundaries and population — Act of Federation of 1686—Penal and civil codes—Development of the Confederation and vicissitudes of Ventimiglia up to the French occupation—Church building at Bordighera—Conversion of the tower into a belfry—Removal of the drawbridges and opening of new gates.

WE have not happily to concern ourselves any longer with eight little dependent Communes, crushed and impoverished by a rapacious suzerain, and presenting humble petitions, commending themselves to his pity and clemency, in hopes of obtaining some remission of the taxation which was crushing them; but, starting from the spring of 1683, find ourselves face to face with a very different and far happier state of affairs. For now we see in their place the *Magnifica Communitas Locorum Octo*, which promulgates its own laws, fixes the amount of its taxation by its own choice, and treats, on the most perfect terms of equality, with its old oppressors of bygone days. And one should not fail to notice the determined line taken by the *Consuls* and

Agents of Bordighera when face to face with those of Ventimiglia, in the proceedings of which we have given an account at the end of last chapter, and the stringency of the orders which they imposed on the delegate entrusted with the management of the affair.

The community of the "Eight Towns" was composed of the Communes of (1) Camporosso (*Campus Rubeus*), in the valley of the Nervia;* (2) San Biagio (*Villa Martis*); (3) Soldano, and (4) Vallecrosia in the valley of the same name; (5) Sasso; (6) Vallebuona, and (7) Borghetto, in the adjoining valley; and (8) Bordighera on the Cape of St. Ampelio. It is in fact the modern *Canton* (*Mandamento*) of Bordighera, plus the commune of Camporosso and minus that of Seborga. The boundaries to the east and north are identical with those of the present Communes, save that the territory of Camporosso extended further beyond the right bank of the Nervia than it does now, and followed the boundary line of the Ventimiglian territory along the crest of the foremost hills.

This boundary descended probably towards the shore by the ridge of *Colla Sgarba* and the *Torre Orengo*, a massive construction which still exists, though in a state of ruin; and which, like the tower of *Mostaccini* on a hill near Bordighera, served as an *Avisium* from which the sea could be watched and notice given of the approach of pirates. The neighbourhood of the *Colla Sgarba* (or Pierced Hill) took its name from a tunnel which runs through the hill from one side to the other. It is well worth a visit from all pedestrians, for the view obtained from it is as beautiful as

* It is asserted that the name *Campus Rubens* was suggested by the numberless blossoms of the oleander (*Nerium oleander*), which give a red tint to the banks of shingle in this torrent, especially in the month of June.

it is unexpected. It is difficult to fix precisely the date of the foundation of these villages; Camporosso and San Biagio are probably the oldest, after them Borghetto; Sasso and Bordighera being the most modern. The population of the eight towns at the time of emancipation is equally difficult to fix; but it is most probable that it would not, at the very utmost, exceed the total of 5000 souls.

This figure may perhaps appear below the truth, but I do not see *how* it is possible to raise it. I have obtained it by allowing one thousand inhabitants to Bordighera, the same number to Camporosso, and three thousand to the six other Communes; that is to say, their present population.

Under the rule of Ventimiglia, the Communes were governed by two "Consuls," who with the "Agents" were appointed by the *Civitas;* they elected, together, a third of the members of Parliament, but they had not any direct influence in the administration of public affairs; neither could their citizens be magistrates or hold any civil or public office or superior appointment of any kind.

But under the new *régime*, the posts of "Consul" and "Agent" disappear, and the executive power is confided to four "Syndics," nominated by the Parliament and all residents in those of the four divisions of the Confederation where the Parliament for the time being is sitting. These divisions were four, not eight in number, owing to the fact that the Communes in each of the valleys of Borghetto and Vallecrosia were united in a single municipality.

The Parliament, composed of twenty-four deputies, was renewed each year, and it sat for a term of three years in each of the four divisions. One peculiar feature in the

organisation of the Eight Towns was the mode of electing the Parliament; it was purely self-elective: the retiring members selected their successors.

After their emancipation the eight Communes decided to associate together in the task of drawing up a code of laws which should be binding upon all. Their deed of Federation, signed on the 20th of April, 1616, is quite worth insertion here, almost in its entirety, in spite of its length, as an interesting specimen of the documents of that time; and also as it contains the official statute of the Confederation:

THE DEED OF CONVENTION OF THE EIGHT TOWNS.

"In the Name of God, Amen.

"In the year of the Nativity 1686, on the afternoon of Sunday the 20th of April, in the oratory of St. Bartholomew at Burdighetta (Bordighera). Whereas the villages of Camporosso, Burdighetta, Vallebuona, Borghetto, San Biagio, Soldano, and Sasso, have received permission from the most excellent magistrate of the communities to separate themselves from the city of Ventimiglia in all that belongs to the said villages, and which has hitherto been in common with the said city, the most worthy Signor Gerolamo Invrea has been elected Commissioner to execute the said decree:

"And as at present it is still uncertain what proportion the above-mentioned villages are expected to contribute by taxation or rates towards the revenue of the said city (such sums having been hitherto merged in a common fund), it is desirable that such taxation and rates should be set forth in the deed of separation:

"And it being expedient further, that the above-mentioned villages should not only maintain a good understanding between each other, but also union and concord for the preservation of peace as neighbours and friends, they hereby appoint (spontaneously and in the manner which seemeth best to them), Messrs Paolo Gerbaldo (son of Agostino), Gio. Batt. Molinari (son of Pietro), and Giacomo Molinari (son of Giov. Anto.), now 'Agents' of this village of Burdighetta, and also Giov. Batt. Bianchero, their colleague (who is now ill), 'Deputies,' to

represent the majority of this place, in conformity with the deeds witnessed by me as Notary. . . .*

". . . . And the above-mentioned gentlemen declare that the separation taking place, all such portion of the charges and revenue connected with public property, as also all sums raised by duties upon the sale of fish, by concessions, either for pasturage or vegetables, upon the manufacture of oil and of wine, by duties upon contracts, by concessions for drawing water and for forced labour, by fines for damage done by cattle, by duties upon grain, by tolls, by duties upon stuffs, silk and rags, &c., which, until now, have been levied by the city (as well as all other goods and chattels that may be assigned or which may now belong to them), belong to the above-mentioned villages. . . .

"They then (the delegates), for the good government of the said villages, make the following agreements, upon the conditions and details of which they are entirely agreed:

"1. That after the separation of Ventimiglia and the above-mentioned villages, the latter shall elect every year four 'Syndics' for the good government of the said villages, whose office it shall be to assist in the 'Parliaments,' whenever they may be convoked; and although they may not vote in the said 'Parliaments' they shall take part in the sale of concessions and the 'farming' of the duties, *octroi*, and other receipts, which the villages will have as revenue.

"2. That four 'Vendors' shall be elected with the four 'Syndics,' and together with them shall be responsible for the sale of the right of 'farming' the duties, concessions, *octroi*, and all receipts as above referred to; and that these 'Vendors' shall be elected in the following manner, viz.: one for Camporosso; one between Vallecrosia, San Biagio, and Soldano; one between Vallebuona, Borghetto, and Sasso; and the fourth from Burdighetta (otherwise Bordighera), which elections shall be valid for three years, the right of farming the duties, &c., being also for a like period.

"3. That every year twenty-four persons shall be elected for the said villages and form a Council or Parliament (such persons being at the least twenty-five years of age), viz., six for Camporosso; six for the valley of Vallecrosia, San Biagio, and Soldano; six for the valley of Vallebuona, Borghetto, and Sasso; and the other six for Burdighetta

* I have omitted the paragraphs similar to that quoted with regard to Bordighera which speak of the elections of *Deputies* for the other seven Communes.—A. C. D.

(Bordighera); and in the said 'Parliament' nothing shall be determined without the concurrence of four-fifths of the whole number of votes, 'this being in order that one valley shall not oppress another.' (lit).

"4. That the said elections of 'Syndics' shall take place first of all in the village of Camporosso, and continue for three years; when this term has passed there shall be elections for the valley of Vallecrosia, also for three years; then for the village of Burdighetta, and so, in this order, it shall begin again 'and go on for ever.' (lit.)

"5. That the said Parliament shall always meet in the village or the valley where the Syndics may be, and that the said Parliament shall be convoked by the order of the said Syndics upon every occasion (they think necessary), it (i. e. the Parliament) having authority to discuss and deliberate upon all that may be useful, necessary, or expedient for the said villages, according to Article 3, and with the assistance of the said Syndics, or at least a majority of them; and whoever, being elected to the said Parliament, shall fail to respond to the summons, shall render himself liable to a fine of a golden *scudo*, to be paid to the Communities.

"6. That every three years two capable and fit 'cashiers' (or tax-collectors) shall be appointed, whose duties shall be to collect all receipts, taxes, &c., from the said villages, in order that they may, with them, pay all charges as may belong to them; which taxes, if at the end of three years they have not collected and given an account of, they must supply themselves; and this shall take place in the same valley or village where the Syndics shall be; and further, that such Cashiers from this time forth shall be paid (as remuneration) 2 per cent. on the total, in equal parts.

"7. That if any of those elected to the Parliament shall fail to attend, others may be substituted from the valley or Communes where the Parliament shall then be.

"8. That in the village or valley where the Parliament is convoked, all concessions, duties and receipts which the villages have in common shall be sold by auction (i.e. farmed out).

"9. That on the first occasion, the Parliament shall be elected in the following manner, viz.: the Agents and Officials for the Commune of Camporosso shall elect six persons for the said Commune; the officials of Vallecrosia six for the valley; the officials of the Commune of Burdighetta, other six for the same place; and the officials of Vallebuona, other six for the whole of that valley; and that the first Parliament shall take care to elect its successor, and composed of the persons

described as above, and further, that the expiring Parliament shall always create the new one, as well as all necessary officials for the government of the Communes.

"10. That the first delegates of the Parliament shall require the Syndics, Vendors and Cashiers to elect a Public Crier, such crier to be elected by a majority of four-fifths of those voting, and this the Parliament (*pro tempore*) sitting shall always continue to do.

"11. That all the Syndics, Vendors, Members of Parliament, Delegates and Cashiers who shall be elected, shall not in any way be able to excuse themselves, although they shall be allowed some privileges as compensation.

"12. That the Syndics who shall be elected, *pro tempore*, shall not incur any expenses which have not first been authorised, after full discussion, by the Parliament, with the exception of that which shall be paid to the excellent Chamber as annual tribute (*the annual tribute to Genoa*), and other real and personal debts excepted, which may be necessary; should, however, occasion arise when outlay is necessary for the public service, but only for objects which have been already approved.

"13. That every year four Master Controllers (or Auditors) shall be elected by the said Parliament, whose duty it shall be to examine the accounts presented by the Cashiers at the end of each three years (even if it should be a month after the expiration of their office), in the presence of the Syndics, or at the least of the greater number of them; and the said election of Master Controllers (or Auditors) shall be made in the same manner as that of the Vendors, as indicated in Article 2.

"14. That with regard to the tax on the marine (*probably some charge upon fishing and coasting craft*), and also the tax upon meat (with regard to which latter, the division has already been made), it is not intended that any change be made between the said villages.

"15. That the expenses incurred up to the present time or which may be incurred with regard to the separation, as also the tax upon wine (which has already been decided by the most excellent magistrates of the Communes), shall be paid *pro ratâ*, by each one of the said villages.

"16. That the collector who shall receive the taxes shall be obliged to appoint some person in each one of the said villages to whom payment can be made and by whom information may be given.

"17. That each one of the villages respectively shall reserve to itself all those "honours" (perhaps "royalties"), privileges, rents and possessions which belong to each one, and which they have enjoyed previous to this convention.

"18. That whenever additional taxes shall be necessary, to pay debts or for other purposes, such taxes shall be levied *pro ratâ* on all upon the register; the said delegates reserving to themselves power and authority as soon as the separation is made, to alter, moderate or increase the said conditions, so that the said delegates shall give their votes, should occasion arise, to alter, moderate or increase (as specified above); and should the said delegates not agree, they must elect two learned and skilful persons to arbitrate in this matter. Of which things, I, Gaspare Noaro, Notary, do hereby testify to, in the said village of Burdighetta, in the said Oratory, on the day of the year above mentioned.

(Signed) GASPARE NOARO, Notary.

Witnesses to the above, {PIETRO PIANA (son of Guglielmo), {SANTINO ARRIGO (son of Francesco).

The deed which we have just read was soon completed by the addition of a code of special laws both civil and penal; the latter being remarkably severe even to their most minute details, although they were in reality merely bylaws for the punishment of petty offences. Civil law, and what we should call "misdemeanours," are not combined in the above, as, owing to the fact that the confederation remained still under the Genoese flag, new legislation on these points was unnecessary. The Penal Code of the Eight Towns is especially remarkable for its minute and Draconian character; the very slightest contraventions of the law being provided against and punished severely. I give a few instances, which I think will amuse my readers:

"Gathering snails on another's land: if during the day-time a fine of 4 lire, if at night 8 lire. Stealing leaves, flowers, and small or large branches (commonly called *brutti d'alberi*) or in any other manner injuring trees, a punishment of from 12 to 24 lire at the discretion of the judge. Stealing vegetables of any kind whatever from lands adjoining the sea: if during the day-time 14 lire, if by night 24 lire. Stealing gates from another's property or doing the same any sort of injury, either by breaking or carrying away, a fine of 20 lire. Trespassing on another's lands or breaking down openings, a punishment of 4 lire; under this head also shall be classed the leading of public water-courses across the lands of others, also appropriating private water-courses."

The Confederation of the Eight Towns existed until the French occupation at the end of the eighteenth century, thus enjoying an existence of nearly one hundred years. This period was indeed a time of great prosperity for the emancipated and federated Communes; as, thanks to their separation from their tyrannical suzerain, Ventimiglia, they escaped the vicissitudes which seem fated to pursue that unfortunate town. For, situated as it was upon the frontier, strongly fortified, and at the mouth, from a strategic point of view, of an important valley, Ventimiglia necessarily continued to be exposed as formerly to foreign disturbance of every kind, to occupation by alien troops, and especially to the horrors of continual sieges with their train of cruelties and sufferings.

During the war of succession which raged over the whole of Europe after the death of Charles VI. of Austria in 1740, Ventimiglia was taken and sacked no less than four times: by the English under Admiral Matthews in 1742,* by the Spaniards in 1745, and later on both by the Savoyards and the French.

At the end of the period which is now occupying our attention, Bordighera must have presented very much the same aspect as its walls and bastions do now. The old parish church, begun in 1600 and dedicated to St. Mary Magdalene, was converted into the oratory of St. Bartho-

* The local historians seem greatly to have exaggerated what really occurred, but full details of the events which took place in this part of the Riviera during the Spanish War, and the part played by the English fleet, will be found in Chap. xvii.—A. C. D.

lomew on the construction of the present building; the ancient tower, which had originally been erected to serve as an *Avisium*, being altered into a belfry in 1750; whilst the same year saw also the removal of the drawbridges from both the then existing gateways; those which are known to-day as the *Porta a Mare* and the *Porte Sottane*; the *Porta della Maddalena* being opened in 1780.

The fountain which occupies the centre of the Piazza to which it gives its name, as well as the aqueduct which supplies it, were constructed in 1783, the statue above the fountain being from the studio of the Genoese sculptor, Sivori. But this period of prosperity and progress was not, alas! destined to be indefinitely prolonged. The French Revolution was almost at hand, and the torch of war was to be carried by its baneful influence from one end of Europe to the other; for that continent had now arrived at one of the most eventful periods of its history, and Liguria, no longer to be left sleeping on one side, was shortly to become the theatre of events of the most stirring character. Rumours of war were in the air, and the bugles of General Anselme had already begun to awaken the echoes on the banks of the Var.

CHAPTER XII.

THE FRENCH OCCUPATION.

Annexation of the "County" of Nice—Revolution at Genoa in 1797 and the Provisional Government—Enthusiasm of the populace—The Ligurian Republic—The First Empire—Annexation of Liguria and division into French departments—The Restoration of 1814 and the incorporation of Liguria into the Kingdom of Sardinia.

A FEW days before the fall of the throne—that is to say, in the month of August 1792—the Dumouriez and Roland Cabinet declared war with Austria and the Kingdom of Sardinia, and immediately concentrated an army on the banks of the Var, under the orders of Generals Anselme and de Courten.

But the Prussians were already in France, and in possession of the eastern departments, and it was not until after the retreat of the German forces, which was brought about by the victory of Valmy on September 20th, the same day upon which the Republic was proclaimed, that it was definitely decided to take the offensive upon the Italian frontier.

The first step was precipitated by an inexplicable panic which took place at Nice. The rumour having been spread about that the French troops had already commenced their march, the Sardinian forces to the number of 10,000 men and sundry battalions of French refugees, who were organised to oppose the Republican army, were seized with a sudden panic, and without waiting to find out what were the real facts of the case, retired precipitately

under the guns of the Fort of Saorgio, in the upper valley of the Roya.

Anselme took advantage of this retreat to occupy Nice without firing a shot, but the incorporation of the "County" with the new Republic under the name of the department of the "Maritime Alps" did not take place until the 15th May, 1796.

The annexation of Monaco had already taken place as far back as February 15th, 1793. The Principality was therefore the first territory officially united to France during this period of conquest.

Some time in the spring following (about the 25th of April) the army of Italy—which counted in its ranks not only the future Marshal Masséna, then *chef de bataillon*, but also Napoleon Bonaparte, a captain in the artillery—gave the signal for the invasion of Genoese territory by the occupation of Ventimiglia, establishing their advanced posts along the right bank of the Nervia.

But after a delay of only a few days the "Sans Culottes" again moved forward and occupied successively the towns of San Remo, Porto Maurizio, and Oneglia, and the valley of the Impero, by which latter they penetrated into Piedmont.

From this moment the whole of Eastern Liguria was subject to French influence; Genoa, supported by Nelson with a British fleet, alone held out, but it was only a temporary resistance: for the Government of the Doge having finally declared against the coalition, a revolution took place in May 1797, and a Provisional Government was formed, charged with the task of preparing the constitution of the Ligurian Republic, based on the principles of '89.

The proclamation of Liberty and Equality led, as might be expected, to great rejoicings throughout the whole of Liguria. The Genoese and the semi-independent states who were united to them under one flag, though nominally enjoying a republican form of Government, had always been intensely aristocratic in character. An impassable barrier divided the population into two great divisions, which bore the names respectively of the "Magnifici" and the "Particolari"; in other words, the upper and the middle classes.

These two classes, violently hostile to each other, were ever struggling for power, which had hitherto been almost always in the hands of the "Magnifici," who had exercised it without any consideration whatever for their opponents. But the modern idea of true liberty and equality was absolutely unknown.

One can therefore well understand that the suppression of social distinctions and all the privileges of caste was hailed by the *bourgeoisie* as the commencement of an era of happiness which opened for them new and vast horizons.

As soon as this proclamation became known, all the Communes which formed a portion of Genoese territory sent deputations to the metropolis to signify to the Provisional Government their adhesion to the new order of things, and to offer them their congratulations on having taken so decided a step.

One may form some idea of the enthusiasm and the spirit which animated the whole country by the following fragment, which I have extracted from a discourse delivered on the 26th of June by the spokesman of the deputation from the Eight Towns. As the heading is

peculiar, I give it in the original; but the substance is given in the English translation:*—

"Libertà. Eguaglianza.*
"Cittadini Provvisori. . . ." †

"Liberty. Equality.

"Provisional Citizens,—After three centuries of oppression, suffering humanity has at length thrown off the yoke of her tyrants, and deputed by the people of the Eight Towns, I am able now to speak to you, no longer as formerly, enervated by the seductive splendours of a throne, but with only your own virtue as surroundings, and to make you acquainted with the sentiments of my fellow citizens, concerning the past, the present, and the future.

"And first, as to the past: as true Republicans, we remember it no longer; we consign it to oblivion, and if, by chance, our feet should touch again some link of our now broken chain, without passion, without desire for vengeance, we will offer it upon the altar of our country. . . .

"And you, who are destined to preside at the dawn of our regeneration, whose valour justifies the choice of victorious Italy, continue your noble work and bring it to a successful issue, proving to the neighbouring peoples that you can exercise your sovereignty in a manner just and proportionate; so that when you have ended your glorious task, you may be able to say: 'People of Liguria, we have brought you to the gates of the temple of happiness; it only remains for you to open it wide and draw from its treasury prosperity for present and future generations.' And this same people will answer you, 'We promise; and will ever render thanks to you for the wisdom with which you have directed this revolution: a wisdom so great that it should justly be an example and model to other nations.' Accept, then, the tribute of our gratitude, of our love, of our reverence, and our sincerest trust. . . ."

* It is rather an interesting point in connection with the official documents of the Genoese Revolution, that though nearly all bear as a heading the inscription *Libertà, Eguaglianza*, and some *Libertà, Virtù, Eguaglianza*, the word *Fraternità* is always conspicuous by its absence in the Ligurian Republic.

† This singular designation of the members of the Provisional Government is not a careless mistake, but is constantly recurring throughout a mass of documents of that time.

The first constitution of the Ligurian Republic is dated the 1st of August, 1797. It established the equality of all citizens, the sovereignty of the people, liberty of conscience, and granted special protection to local industry and trade.* The Legislative power was confided to a body composed of two councils, of one hundred and twenty and of sixty members, elected by universal suffrage, a third of which was renewed each year, whilst the executive was a Directory or Cabinet of fifteen members nominated by the Legislative bodies.

Under the new organisation the country was divided into thirty-two districts, having each a *central administration* composed of five members, and into Communes administered by elected municipalities, whose members were in proportion to the population.

I give below the details of the two districts which embraced Western Liguria.

District of the Roya.—Chief town: Ventimiglia. Communes: Penna, Bevera, Airole, Camporosso, Soldano, San Biagio, Bordighera, Vallebuona, Vallecrosia, Borghetto, and Sasso.

Boundaries: to the west, the Mentonese territory, marked by the Garavan torrent and the ridge of Grammont; to the north, the southern border of Dolceacqua; to the east, the district of the Palm Trees (details of which will be found below), marked out by a boundary line to westward of the Lizzia Canal. Population, 10,411.

District of the Palm Trees (*delle Palme*).—Chief town:

* It is a curious fact, and one which I commend to the attention of ardent Free Traders, that one of the first acts of a community, large or small, after it has gained its freedom, is to organise measures for the protection of its own industries and productions.—A. C. D.

San Remo. Communes: Colla, San Bartolomeo, Veresco, Poggio, and Ceriana.

Boundaries: to the west, the district of the Roya (as above); to the north, Dolceacqua; to the east, the district of Argentina. Population, 13,133.

But this division of the country had but a short duration so far as Bordighera was concerned, as for some reason or other, but of which we are unaware, in the following year, 1798, it was detached from the district of the Roya and joined to the neighbouring one of the Palm Trees.*

The Constitution of 1797, drawn up as it was in the Jacobin spirit which animated the policy of Napoleon before the proclamation of the Empire, was too democratic to suit the people of Liguria, where aristocratic ideas and habits were still too strongly implanted to be rooted up in so short a time. So it was modified in a somewhat less radical form in 1803, and, after this revision, remained in full vigour until the end of 1805.

This period of eight years did not, however, pass without some very stirring events; but the only one which especially concerns us is the occupation of Nice and Ventimiglia by the Austrians in 1800, quickly followed by the capitulation of Genoa, which had been besieged by the united forces of Austria and England.

General Elznitz, who commanded at Nice, obeying without any doubt the solicitations of the *Magnifici* party, published a proclamation, by which he declared the old order of things re-established, and the eight confederated communes, to their bitter sorrow and disappointment, once

* Certainly if there is "anything in a name," Bordighera's right and fitness to become a portion of the latter district was indisputable.—A. C. D.

more were given back as dependants, to the tender mercies of their old suzerain.

But this attempt to return again to feudal times was not destined to meet with success or be of a permanent character. The victory of Marengo on the 14th of June caused the fortune of war to turn again in favour of France, and as an immediate result led to the evacuation of Liguria by Austria.

On the 2nd Floreal, in the year XII. (20th of May, 1804), Napoleon proclaimed the First Empire, and from that moment inaugurated a new policy. It was no longer a question of creating and protecting friendly republics on the borders of France; henceforth his aim was a very different one—to aggrandise the Empire by annexations, and to give kings of his own choosing to the neighbouring states.

It was not, however, until after the battle of Austerlitz (December 2nd) and the Treaty of Presburg had been signed (which latter event took place on the 26th December, 1805), that the Emperor felt himself sufficiently firmly seated on his throne to suppress a republic which he had himself created, and which had in all things proved a faithful ally, though jealous at the same time of its own freedom and individuality.

It was about the commencement of the year 1806 that the time-honoured Republic of Genoa,—after a career only equalled and barely excelled by its sister of Venice,—and all her territory, were absorbed into the new empire, and now, alas! appeared in the new scheme of Europe as but a group of French departments. Below I give the designations of the chief towns and their districts (*arrondissements*).

Apennines.—Chief town: Chiavari. Districts: Pontremoli, Sarzana, Spezia.

Genoa.—Chief town: Genoa. Districts: Bobbio, Novi, Tortona, Voghera.

Montenotte.—Chief town: Savona. Districts: Acqui, Ceva, Porto Maurizio.

Maritime Alps.—Chief town: Nice. Districts: San Remo, Puget-Théniers.

The tricolor waved over Liguria until the fall of the Empire; that is, for nearly eighteen years, which were for that country a period of peace if not of prosperity. Only one event of a warlike character took place during this time, viz. a bombardment of Bordighera, an account of which may amuse our English readers, it being more a burlesque of real war than anything serious; but it is further interesting also, as it is the last occasion when shots have been fired with hostile intentions on these coasts.*

On the 14th of July, 1811, an English cruiser, whilst sailing along the coast, was becalmed off Bordighera, not more than a few cable-lengths from the shore, and speedily found itself a target for the five little batteries, each armed with one gun, which then existed upon the plateau of St. Ampelio.

* I have searched carefully through the Admiralty papers during the year mentioned (1811), but can find no mention of either incident; though perhaps, if it had been possible to find the names of the vessels engaged, a search in their log-books might give us further information. As far as one can judge from Signor Palanca's brief account, the English vessel (most probably a small cruiser or vessel with despatches from Genoa, working up to Lord Exmouth, the commander-in-chief, off Hyères) was becalmed, and must have drifted *stern* on to within gunshot of the batteries. Mr. Hamilton suggests, "becalmed, no doubt, *westward* of the cape; when the current, which sets to the east, would carry her to the cape and very near the shore; but the current disperses itself when once it has doubled the cape and gets into the expanse of water formed by the opening of the Bay of *La Ruota*"; hence the vessel became stationary, and, as she was lying in the position above mentioned, was unable to get any of her guns to bear upon the battery which was attacking her. Naturally, the captain did the best for his vessel, under the circumstances: he lowered his boats and towed out of range. And the return of a small squadron, five days afterwards (the date given is the 19th of the same month), would just allow time for the injured vessel to work up to Hyères or Toulon, communicate with the Admiral, and for the return of the powerful vessels to demand redress for the insult. It may perhaps be of interest to note here that I find from a despatch of the English Admiral, dated the 15th July, 1811, that on that day the "in-shore squadron," cruising off Cape Sicié (which is near Antibes), consisted of two line-of-battle ships and two frigates: the *Conqueror* and *Rodney*, and the *Franchise* and *Apollo*. Might it not then have been the two latter and one of the former which appeared off Bordighera on the 19th?—A. C. D.

It was, of course, an act of impudent bravado on the part of the artillerymen and the officer in charge; but the gunners served their pieces so well and aimed so truly, that they succeeded in smashing in the cabin windows, and doing considerable damage to the stern of the vessel; so much so, indeed, that instead of replying and promptly silencing them, the captain was compelled to lower his boats and tow his ship out of range. Great rejoicings, as may be imagined, took place ashore, the gunners boasting of their easy victory, and all imagined they had heard the last of it; but a few days afterwards they learnt they had counted without their host; for a ship of the line and two frigates, under English colours, entrusted with the task of bringing the belligerent little village to her senses, appeared in the offing, brought up broadside to the cape, and opened a sustained fire upon the town. The windows rattled in their casements, and the chimney-pots, appropriately enough, toppled down upon the little garrison, but no one was either killed or wounded, and the inhabitants, only too anxious to bring such a state of

things to a conclusion, hastened to surrender; the mayor, most probably the bearer of the message, being invited to dinner on board the English flagship! *

But if this period of their union with France was not characterised by any remarkable event, an imperishable memento of it is left behind in the wonderful Cornice Road. This magnificent highway, laid out, however, more from a strategic point of view than one of practical utility, has always been the delight and called forth the enthusiasm of all travellers who pass over it; as owing to the fact, which has just been stated, of its having been designed by engineer officers for military purposes, it winds around the projecting heights which obstruct its passage, in place of always following the coast-line. It thus offers to the tourist, for its whole length of 125 miles, a variety of land and sea-scapes and a series of exquisite views which are probably unequalled in the whole world. The work, on that portion of the route between Nice and Mentone which had already become French territory, was contracted for about the year 1804, and the whole length of the road was laid out and arranged for in 1810, but it was not fully completed until the year 1828.

The abdication of Napoleon took place at Fontainebleau on the 13th of April, 1814: the English immediately occupied Genoa, and there announced that the Republic which had existed for so many centuries was to be restored. This news was welcomed with demonstrations of joy along the whole of the Ligurian coast; and knowing the national pride of the Genoese, any other feeling would have been impossible.

* *Una Generosità in guerra, ossia il Bombardamento di Bordighera*, a narrative by the late Signor S. Palanca, published in the *Via Aurelia* in June 1876.

The Republican constitution of 1797 had been drawn up for them at the camp of Montebello: the annexation to France was a high-handed act of the strong towards the weak: both one and the other were a form of government forced upon them, and which they detested. Under such conditions, then, and in spite of a taste for liberty and democracy which had begun to spread, a people so proud and independent as the Genoese could not fail to hail with delight the prospect of a return to the glorious autonomy of the past.

But unfortunately for their aspirations, the Treaty of Paris decided otherwise. Liguria was to be incorporated into the kingdom of Sardinia under the sceptre of Victor Emmanuel I., who was recalled from Cagliari, where the conquests of Napoleon had exiled him, to be placed at the head of a secondary sub-Alpine power intended to act as a barrier, on the road to Austria, against the French armies of the future.

Little did those think who arranged and concurred in this transformation—which, intended to maintain the European equilibrium, gave the finishing stroke to the life of an ancient and historic Republic—that they had thrown down at the foot of the Alps, the germ of a future Italy, united, powerful, and free!

CHAPTER XIII.

LIGURIA IN THE PRESENT DAY.

The Restoration of 1814—Phases of the Italian Revolution up to the year 1848—The Sardinian Constitution—Proclamation of the Kingdom of Italy in 1861—Annexation of Nice to France—Journeys of Sovereigns through Liguria—Earthquakes in 1831—Opening of the Cornice Road—Resolutions as to the "sandy lands."

Victor Emmanuel I. was fifty-four years of age when the Treaty of Paris, in 1814, called him back again to Piedmont. He had succeeded his brother, Charles Emmanuel IV., on his abdication at Cagliari in 1802, and was a prince of a gentle and benevolent character, but without energy and with very mediocre abilities; but nothing was dearer to his heart than to re-establish the old order of affairs from one end of his kingdom to the other. The old Piedmontese nobility, who, during "the usurpation of the demagogue Napoleon," had retired to solitude in their *châteaux*, drifted back again to the court at Turin, and threw all the weight of their coronets and all the influence of their traditions into the organisation of the new kingdom.

The *Code Napoléon* was suppressed with all the liberties which it had established, the privileges of the nobles were restored, the clergy were favoured by the re-establishment of monasteries and the recall of the Jesuits.

This return to an absolutism from which all popular representation, all participation of the nation in its government was banished, and where the State and its

officers were all-powerful, did not, however, press so hardly upon Piedmont, Savoy, and the "County" of Nice. They had been accustomed to all this before. But it was far different with the Genoese, and they, who looked with pride upon their ancient Republic, could not without the keenest sorrow see themselves deprived at the same time of their liberties and their national independence.

However, the Sardinian Government showed itself enlightened even in its despotism, which consisted mainly in ruling with a strong rather than a cruel hand. Besides, too, the idea of a united Italy was not slow in springing up, and neutralised, by absorbing them, all the aspirations towards the various separate autonomies of past centuries.

But the stream of history has now tided us down nearly to the middle of the nineteenth century, and to events which the present generation has witnessed. To recount these events in detail, would be equivalent to writing a history of the political *Renaissance* of Italy, and this would lead me far beyond the scope of these pages, which are but an historical *résumé* intended only to give the reader some idea of the past of the country. I will confine myself therefore to recall as briefly and clearly as possible the various phases of this magnificent evolution.

Carlo Felice, the third of the sons of Victor Amadeus who reigned at Turin, succeeded to the throne of Sardinia upon the abdication of his brother Victor Emmanuel I. in 1821; he died in 1831, leaving the crown to his cousin Charles Albert. The period from 1821 to 1831 was indeed a time of marvellous advance in the progress towards the great goal, that of delivering Italy from her tyrants and making her an independent nation. The idea of unity

spread and increased visibly; but, amongst all the kings, princes, and dukes which shared the Peninsula, Charles Albert alone had the sense to see that the only way of saving his throne was to place himself, frankly and without any selfish designs, at the head of the movement which, it was becoming evident, had seized the whole of Italy in its fascinating toils.

The election of Pius IX. in 1846, and the liberal inclinations he showed the following year, the excitement provoked in Naples by the tyranny of Ferdinand II., the cruelties of Austria in Lombardy, and the pressure which she exercised on the little States, her vassals, and above all the open hostility this Power displayed towards the sub-Alpine kingdom, finally decided the Sardinian Government to throw itself heart and soul into the national cause.

In February 1848, Naples obtained the shadow of parliamentary representation and freedom of the press. This precipitated events at Turin, for a Government already so enlightened and advanced as that of the Sardinian States could no longer remain passive when even the Bourbons had set an example. Shortly afterwards the agitation at Turin and Genoa began to assume a serious aspect, upon which was issued that famous proclamation, as dignified as it was brief: "Citizens! Order and moderation: the King has promised that he will satisfy his people!"

And right nobly the King kept his word; for almost immediately Carlo Alberto granted a constitution to his subjects, assuring by this memorable act the crown of Italy to his successors, at the very same time that another sovereign, who had listened to less enlightened counsel and followed a totally different policy, was hurriedly

flying from the throne of St. Louis and treading the exile's path, never to return. By a singular coincidence, the news of the Revolution of Paris on the 24th of February, 1848, was received in Italy whilst the Piedmontese were giving themselves up to orderly but intense demonstrations of joy at the proclamation of a constitution; the fact being known precisely at the moment most favourable for giving a fresh *élan* to the national part and encouraging it to go steadily forward.

We all of us know the vicissitudes of 1848–49 which ended in the abdication of Carlo Alberto, and accession to the throne of Victor Emmanuel II.

As soon as the Sardinian States became in the truest and fullest sense of the word a free and constitutional kingdom, they adopted as a national flag the Italian tricolour, composed of the colours of the town of Bologna, which the patriots of that city had used in the revolution of 1831, united with green, the emblem of hope. This latter symbolising, as significantly as silently, the desire of uniting the entire Peninsula under the sceptre of the House of Savoy; the fulfilment of which by every means in their power became henceforth the chief object of the statesmen of the sub-Alpine kingdom.

But this faith in a great idea and this devotion to a glorious cause, which are personified in the name of Victor Emmanuel and in those of the two great historic figures of Garibaldi and Cavour,* were not to receive their recompense until 1860, or their complete and final crown for ten years later, until that memorable afternoon in September,

* To those readers who would care to learn something of the real character and inner life of this wonderful man, Christian, patriot, and statesman, let me strongly recommend them to get his life, by M. Mazade; of which there is now an English edition published.—A. C. D.

1870, when the troops of a once more united Italy entered the gates of Rome.

The kingdom of Italy was formally proclaimed on the 15th of March, 1861; but this wonderful result of the Sardinian policy was not attained without sacrifices. The support given by France to Piedmont in the war of 1859, and the acquiescence of the former Power in the annexations of the other Italian States, was not entirely or by any means of an unselfish character, and had to be paid for by the renaissant Italy not only surrendering the cradle-land of the Savoy dynasty, but also the "County" of Nice, which had belonged to that ancient house for four centuries and a half.

This double surrender, demanded by the Imperial Government as necessary to France as a strategic rectification of frontier "in view of the imminent transformation of Italy into a Power of the first order," was consented to by Cavour, in a despatch dated 2nd March, 1860, with the reservation, however, that the inhabitants themselves should decide by a *plébiscite*. To make the affair more complicated, the Parisian journals, when it was announced that "the department of the Maritime Alps" was to be restored to France, believed or pretended to believe that it was to be the same as under the First Empire—that is to say, including the district of San Remo, which extended as far as the Torrent of Argentina—and dilated eloquently on the number of square miles of new territory and the increase of population which would be added to the Empire. The inhabitants were greatly excited by these paragraphs, and the deputies of San Remo protested most energetically against the suggestion in the parliament at Turin.

But the project was never seriously entertained by Napoleon III. The Cabinet of the Tuileries knew well enough, whatever the daily papers might say on the subject, that the country to the eastward of the torrent of Garavan—which formed the old limit of the Principality of Monaco—was essentially Genoese, no less in its history and language than in the habits and customs of its inhabitants; and was therefore naturally anxious to shield itself from the reproach of diminishing with one hand the territory of a nation which it had reconstructed with the other, at the cost of such great sacrifices.

The *plébiscite* of the "County" of Nice, which gave an enormous majority in favour of annexation to France, took place in the month of April, but the Government of that country did not take possession until the 12th of June following. This annexation having taken away the chief town of the province of which San Remo was a *sous préfecture*, this enterprising little town—which had already aspired to take its place amongst the wintering places of the Riviera, hoped that the mantle of the "*Préfecture*" might fall upon its shoulders, and its deputies made great efforts to bring this to pass. But the Sardinian Government decided otherwise, and the position of chief town was transferred to Porto Maurizio which shared the advantages with its neighbour Oneglia.

During the period of nearly three-quarters of a century which has elapsed since Liguria has been definitely united to the kingdom of Sardinia, the history of the canton of Bordighera does not offer any remarkable event for our notice. But I must not omit to mention one at least which gave great delight to the faithful laity of the town, and that was nothing less than the passing through it of

Pope Pius VII. on his return from Paris. He rested at Bordighera, most probably journeying, like many before him, on mule back, and after a Pontifical Mass in the parish church, gave his solemn benediction to the town. All the Sardinian sovereigns also have passed along our coast either going to or returning from Nice: Carlo Felice in 1826, Carlo Alberto in 1836, Victor Emmanuel in January 1857, and his two sons Humbert and Amadeus also, who made a stay of some days in the town in September of the same year.

But the most important event of the period was undoubtedly the opening of the carriage-road, better known to us now as the "Cornice Road," which took place, so far as Bordighera was concerned, in the year 1823. From this moment the inhabitants of the place, like all those who were similarly situated, began to feel the necessity of building a new town at the foot of the hill. The old villages perched on the heights, surrounded by lofty walls, and which it was only possible to enter by passing through narrow gateways, were no longer adapted either to the wants or habits of modern days. Life, for the future, both of business and pleasure, would pass along this great highway, whether the traveller choose the diligence, the vetturino, or the waggon. It was necessary, therefore, to come down to it.

At this period the demolition of the batteries upon the Cape--which gave so warm a reception to the English cruiser (referred to at page 156)—took place, and the guns were removed; a mule path being opened, which connected the old town with the Cornice near St. Ampelio's Chapel.*

* This road was replaced in 1867 by the carriage-road up the Cape which traverses the *Orti Sottani*.

From this time houses began quickly to arise all along the shore, forming the commencement of the *Borgo Marina*, the Bordighera of the future.

And after a time this movement shorewards (or *seawards* rather) was, as it were, officially brought before the notice of the Municipal administration. The new road had been traced as close to the beach as was possible; but the continuous retirement of the sea, before long, left a considerable slip of land upon the further side of it, which though at first mere worthless beach, by a certain amount of labour and the addition of a top soil could be made suitable for cultivation. This reclaimed land, in the first instance, however, did not by right belong to any one; it had originally been covered by the sea and only had become dry land owing to the former's retirement; but the owners of land bordering the road seized the newly formed beach, enclosed it, and placed it under cultivation.

But the Municipality treated this arbitrary seizure as an illegal act, and declared the land in question "Communal property," though they accorded the above-mentioned landowners the right of cultivation, subject to an annual rent; agreeing further, that if any one built a house, the ground in front of the building, as far as the shore, became *ipso facto* the property of the occupier or possessor; whilst with regard to those portions of the reclaimed lands (known as *terreni arenili* *) which had not been built upon, the Municipal Council reserved to themselves the right at any time of taking possession of them, if they were ever demanded as "building sites" by other inhabitants of the town. The Council also laid down

* Literally, *sandy lands*.

a stringent rule that at the distance of every 50 mètres (160 feet) there was to be a passage twenty-five feet broad, in order to give free communication from the road to the shore.

The meeting of the Communal Council, at which these resolutions were passed, took place on April 6th, 1827; but up to the present time (July 1882) the most essential points have never been carried out!

The Commune has received and still receives the rents, which now furnish a revenue of about 20*l.* a year, but by a weakness the evil consequences of which are only too evident to-day, they have omitted to enforce that stipulation which insists on the reservation of passages giving access to the sea; and further than this, have allowed sales of those *arenili* lands which are still unbuilt upon—a state of things perfectly illegal, it is true, but which has been sufficient to establish rights of property, difficult to deal with at the present time.

If in 1827 the Commune, looking forward somewhat to the future, had reserved absolutely and without conditions the land which the sea was gradually giving up to them—as if with reference to the ultimate development of the town—instead of sacrificing it to private speculation by a fantastical resolution impossible to enforce, it would be unnecessary now to have recourse to taxation and loans to defray the expenses of public improvements, for the Municipality would be the owners of property worth more than a million of francs!

CHAPTER XIV.

LEGISLATIVE UNIFICATION.

Necessity for unification—Old Italian codes—Preparation and promulgation of the Civil Code in 1865—Other Codes and laws—Principal characteristics of the Penal Code, the Constitution, and the Civil Code.

When the Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed in 1861, the administration of justice varied in each State which composed it, and those who took the reins of power found a number of conflicting codes on every side of them.

The various peoples, united under the Constitutional Monarchy of Victor Emmanuel by the *plébiscites* of 1859 and 1860, had nothing in common but the Sardinian Constitution (*Lo Statuto*) which had force amongst them owing to the fact of the annexation. Five civil codes, all more or less imitations of the *Code Napoléon*—which the first Empire had brought to Italy, and which, having lapsed with the fall of the Emperor, had ever since been universally regretted—contended for precedence in the old States which had now become parts of the New Kingdom.

The Lombardo-Venetian provinces used the Austrian code of 1815; the Southern Provinces and Sicily, a code specially drawn up by the Government of Ferdinand I. in 1819; the Duchies of Parma and Modena possessed their own codes of 1820 and 1851, and the code which was known as the "Albertine" of the Sardinian States had been extended to the Romagna, the Marches, and Umbria. Tuscany alone was still governed by common law, modified, however, on many points by special enactments.

Fully cognisant of the grave inconveniences which must necessarily result from the simultaneous existence of so many discordant and contradictory codes, the ministries which followed each other from 1861 to 1865 made continual efforts to bring about a more harmonious state of things. But this was far from easy. Each province naturally desired its own code to be made the basis of the new one, and an assembly composed almost exclusively of advocates, each prepared to support the legislative system of his own country, was not nearly homogeneous enough in its composition, to undertake the details of the codification of a civil law, as elaborate as it was comprehensive.

To proceed in a strictly constitutional manner under these circumstances, was impracticable; the assembly would have been engaged in an endless discussion, beside which our debates on Irish land bills would appear mere child's play, and which would have deferred to the Greek kalends the realisation of a National Code. Under these circumstances the Government took the wise and judicious course of appointing what we should call a "Royal Commission," composed of the first magistrates and jurists of the country, with power to draw up a scheme of codification to be placed before the Assembly, and upon which the members might vote, without discussing the articles.

Commission after commission, nominated by the different ministries, succeeded each other, and the task dragged on from year to year, when the transfer of the seat of Government to Florence, to the only province which was still without a code of any kind, rendered an immediate solution of the question necessary.

The civil code which now exists was presented to the

Chambers on the 24th November, 1864, and was formally adopted in the following spring, complete, and without discussion. The decree promulgating it appeared on the 25th June, 1865, and announced that it would come into operation on the 1st January of the following year.

This important measure was complemented shortly after by the promulgation of a code of Civil Procedure (*Codice di Procedura Civile*) by a Commercial Code, and by six acts for promoting harmony of administration, called *Leggi organiche*, and which we may roughly translate as acts for: (1) the administration of Communes and Provinces; (2) for Public Safety; (3) for Public Health; (4) for the Organisation of a Council of State; (5) for a Court of Arbitration between Administrations; (6) for Public Works.

The Penal Code, however, is still under discussion, but pending its publication, that of the kingdom of Sardinia has been extended to the whole of Italy. The chief feature which distinguishes the scheme in preparation is the abolition of the penalty of death, save for regicide and parricide.

The "*Statute*" or Constitution promulgated by Carlo Alberto on the 4th of September, 1848, in the old Sardinian States, was extended to the other provinces of Italy, as from time to time they came under the rule of the House of Savoy. Below we give some of its more important provisions:

"*The Government.*

"The Government of Italy is a representative, or, as we should say, "a constitutional monarchy;" the crown is hereditary in the male line. (Article 2.)

"*Legislative* power rests with the Crown and the two Chambers.

"The *Executive* power belongs to the King alone, who declares war, is Commander-in-Chief of both Army and Navy, and concludes peace; nevertheless, all treaties, &c., which involve expenditure by the State must first be submitted to the two houses. (Article 5.)

"*Parliament.*

"Parliament consists of an Upper House, composed of *Senators*, nominated by the King, without limitation as to numbers, but they must be chosen from certain classes of citizens, such as archbishops and bishops, ambassadors, ministers, and ex-ministers, general officers, permanent officials of superior rank (answering to our Permanent Secretaries), who have served a certain term of years in the public service, landowners and manufacturers who pay more than 3000 francs (120*l.*) a-year in taxes, and others. (Article 33.)

"The Elective Chamber is composed of *Deputies*, elected in conformity with the electoral law. (Article 39.)

"Deputies are elected for five years, but no one can offer himself for election who is under thirty years of age. (Article 40.)

"The Chamber has a right of impeaching the Ministry and arraigning them before the Senate, constituted as a High Court of Justice. (Articles 36 and 37.)

"All 'money bills' must be presented first to the Chamber of Deputies. (Article 30.)

"Neither Senators nor Deputies receive any salary. (Article 49.)

"The sittings of both Chambers are public, unless *ten* members demand that they shall be held with closed doors. (Article 52.)

"*The Ministry.*

"Ministers may not vote in either House, unless they be Senators or Deputies, but they have the right of entering and speaking in both Chambers. (Article 66.)

"Ministers are responsible for their acts. (Article 66.)

"*The Courts of Justice.*

"The Judges are nominated by the King, except those of the cantons (*Mandamenti*). Their appointment becomes a permanent one after the lapse of three years. (Article 69.)

"All courts, other than those established by statute, are forbidden. (Article 71.)

"*The State Church.*

"The Roman Catholic faith is the religion of the State; but all other creeds are tolerated according to the laws in force. (Article 1.)

"*Citizenship.*

"All Citizens are equal in the eyes of the law. (Article 24.)

"The liberty of the individual is guaranteed; neither can any one be arrested or brought up for sentence otherwise than is provided by law. (Article 26.)

"The House of a Citizen is sacred; any entrance by the Police is forbidden, unless in those cases specified by the law. (Article 27.)

"The right of holding public meetings is recognised, subject, however, to regulations of the Police, referring to gatherings of that character.

"*The Press.*

"The Press is free, but the law represses all abuse of this privilege; but the printing of Bibles, catechisms, prayer-books, or liturgies is forbidden, without permission from the Bishop of the Diocese." (Article 28.)

One cannot fail to be struck, on glancing through the Sardinian statute which forms the basis of Italian liberty, with the hesitation and reserve which marks each article. It is, indeed, impossible not to notice in the many reservations and exceptions the cautious hand of a sovereign, compelled by the pressure of events to make concessions to his people, but who, though not doing so unwillingly, is yet too much influenced by the time-honoured traditions of an absolute and autocratic Government, not to feel that he is on the edge of a precipice, and embarking on an enterprise fraught with the gravest perils. Liberty is given, it is true; but each concession is followed by a reservation as elastic as it is dangerous, and which, whilst granting the freedom desired, tends to a certain degree to neutralise the gift. One has the feeling that, what has

apparently been given by one hand has quietly been taken back by the other.

Thus: the Press is free—*but the law will repress any abuse.*

The right of public meetings is recognised—*but they must be subject to the regulations of the Police!*

The home of a citizen is sacred—*but it may be searched by the Police, under circumstances provided for by the law!*

But this charter has to-day but a secondary importance, so far as the liberties of the country are concerned. The restrictions and reservations I have noticed have fallen into disuse, and many are no longer anything but a dead letter. For it is in Italy as in England: liberty and the rights of the individual, deeply rooted in the hearts, and part of the traditions of the people, exist much more *there* than in any written law whatever.

It has often been said that the Civil code of Italy is a mere translation of the *Code Napoléon,* but I think it would be more just to say that it is the very latest edition, revised and corrected.

Now, no collection of laws whatever can have any pretension to be considered perfect, though it is only, indeed, when we come to put them into force that we discover their various faults and omissions; but *then* it is no less difficult than dangerous to alter them. No precedent can be created more perilous to the welfare and safety of a State than the modification of its code.

But when the object in view is to produce a code or collection of laws for a new kingdom, it is but natural to fall back upon and to reap the benefit of the various experiences of others in the past, and so endeavour, not only to fill up the deficiencies which exist, but to correct those

faults which have been brought most prominently to our notice.

The Italian Codes of the Restoration of 1814, though all modelled on that of the French, yet differ from it and each other in a great variety of points, and the National Code of the present day, which is practically a *résumé* of all, gives us, if we compare it with the original, differences still more marked. But these divergences are those of progress—they are all steps forward in the right road; and we may give as instances those of the liberty and independence of the individual, and the simplification of all transactions concerning the transfer of property and contracts.

Thus, in the law on marriage, the position of the woman is far more rational than in France; since, unless the marriage contract stipulates to the contrary, she can hold property independently of her husband. And further, on his death, she has the right of administering his property, and the guardianship of his children.

Again, the National Code gives a much greater liberty to the two sexes, in so much as it suppresses the quaint formalities of *les actes respectueux,* which the Italian legislators wisely considered an old-fashioned and useless provision, out of harmony with the modern principles of the equality of all and the individual responsibility of each.

CHAPTER XV.

THE DIALECT.

Formation of the ancient dialects of Italy and the Latin language—Influence of the Barbarian immigrants—The Romance language in the time of Charlemagne—Dialects of *oï* and *oc*—Formation of the Italian language—Comparison with French—Present dialects of Italy—The modern *patois* of Nice and Genoa.

It has been shrewdly remarked, that it is possible to deduce the history of a people from their language. I propose then in the present chapter, having brought to an end this *résumé* of the history of Liguria, to add a few words on the dialects of this part of Italy and the adjoining neighbourhoods.

The original inhabitants, or aborigines, of Italy, as far as we are able to discover, undoubtedly spoke a dialect derived directly from the great oriental language which served as a basis for the speech of all European people; and this is proved by the great proportion of Sanscrit words which we meet with in the ancient patois of the Italian peninsula, and in the Latin language. The primitive tongue has been gradually transformed under the influence of various immigration, and thanks to the tendency of barbarous peoples to modify the pronunciation of words, so long as the language remains unfixed by an unvarying orthography:

"Opera naturale è ch' uom favella,
ma così o così, natura lascia
poi fare a voi secondo che v' abbella

* * * *

. e ciò conviene,
chè l'uso dei mortali e come fronda
in ramo che sen va ed altra viene."

Paradiso, Canto XXVI.

"For nought that man inclined to, e'er was lasting
left by his reason free and variable
as is the sky that sways him. That he speaks
to Nature's prompting: whether thus or thus,
she leaves to you, as ye do most affect it.

* * * * *

"And so beseemeth: for in mortals, use
is as the leaf upon the bough: that goes
and others come instead."

Carey's *Translation*.

In this manner was formed a certain number of distinct dialects, of which the Latin language became the final result. The union of Italy under the Roman authority, necessarily gave the ascendency to the language of the conquerors, which after being modified and completed by contact with the various subjected races, became finally the national tongue.

Latin is essentially the Oscian dialect, perfected by civilisation and enriched and amplified by words drawn from all the varied races of the Peninsula, as well as the literature of the Greeks.

The Romans made great efforts to spread the Latin language over the whole of Italy, and later on over the whole of the Empire. But if it has not been possible to stamp out the various patois, even in this nineteenth century and with the powerful aid of the Press, we must not be astonished if the Romans, in spite of their iron will and the most summary proceedings, were but partially

able to realise the promise which Virgil places in Jupiter's mouth on the landing of Æneas:

"Do quod vis, . . .
. . . faciamque omnes uno ore Latinos."

"I do what you desire, . . .
. . . and will make all the Latin people speak with one tongue."
Æneid, Book XII., line 823.

Latin thus became the language used both for speaking and writing amongst the upper and educated classes, but the various patois were still used, not only in the far-off provinces, but in the heart of Latium and even in Rome itself.*

Except in a more synthetical construction, these old dialects differ but little from the patois which are spoken in the present day in the same regions. A great number of words which have never passed into the perfected and sovereign language, but which exist to-day in the patois, have been pointed out by Latin authors as belonging to the dialects, which besides presented, up to a certain point, the same peculiarities of local pronunciation as the modern patois. Thus the inhabitants of Upper Italy were remarkable for their tendency to contract words by eliding the vowels even before consonants, exactly as do their successors in the same regions at the present day.

In the centre of the Italian peninsula again, the tendency was to confound certain letters; to change for example the consonants *l* and *r*, and this peculiarity was as marked in the Roman period as at the present day. The Tuscan peasant still says g*r*obo for g*l*obo, fa*r*so for fa*l*so, a rivede*r*la for a rivede*ll*a, &c.; and the Roman

* The *Vernæ*, or slaves, spoke patois, from which we get the Italian *vernacolo* and the English *vernacular*.

patois also changes constantly the *l* into the *r*, as in the article *er* for *il*. The old inhabitants of the *Terra di Lavoro* did exactly the same, and a very interesting proof of this was found in the excavations amongst the ruins of Pompeii. A scholar who had been, without doubt, learning by heart from the dictation of his master the beginning of the *Æneid*—which was published just before the eruption—had written the first verse with a piece of charcoal on the wall of the school, exactly as I here reproduce it:

"A*l*ma vi*l*umque cano, T*l*oiæ. . . ."

The barbaric invasions of the fifth and sixth centuries, leading as they did to the immigrations *en masse* of new populations, speaking languages of an absolutely different character, necessarily had a radical effect in modifying and altering the dialects of the south of Europe.

The Goths, the Huns, the Vandals, and later on the Lombards, brought with them into Italy, not only an enormous number of new words, but the analytical construction of the phrase and the modern form of speech: the former people especially, played the chief part in this work of transformation, and their influence was naturally more marked in the north than the south of the Peninsula. The *u* of the Piedmontese, and the *oe* of the Genoese, which are pronounced as the German * *ü* and *ö*, are evidently some of the results of the Gothic immigration. About the end of this period, that is, the time of Charlemagne, the dialects of Northern Italy must have assumed nearly their present form, for the only

* This modification of the pronunciation of the vowels explains clearly the change in the name of *San Romolo* to *San Remo*, the transition from *Roemus* to *Remus* being perfectly natural.

influence which they have had to contend against since is the comparatively slight one, of contact with a written tongue, the Italian, and the invasions of foreigners in the middle ages.

The Latin language struggled long and valiantly against the powerful current of the popular idioms, but the fight was an unequal one; used by the masses, and favoured by the conquerors from the north, the new languages had on their side both numbers and power, whilst the Latin on the contrary was confined, with those who could read and write, to the monasteries and bishops' palaces, and was compelled to defend itself, disputing step by step the invasion of its vulgar rivals, from the stronghold of municipal and imperial acts, of the liturgies and religious ceremonies of the Church of Rome, and of literature.

At the commencement of the ninth century, the south of Europe possessed a language almost unique in character, viz. "the rustic Latin, or *langue romane*—Romance;" and Charlemagne, understanding thoroughly that a language common throughout the whole of his Empire would be an enormous step towards its consolidation, decided to raise the dialect of the masses to the rank of an official language and to impose it upon all his subjects.

By the *Capitulaires* of 813, he ordered that the Gospel was to be read to the people throughout the whole of the Empire, "*dans le roman vulgaire,*" or the Romance tongue, which was spoken over the whole of Provence and a great portion of France and Northern Italy.*

But this bastard and transitional language lasted no longer than the degenerate and ephemeral empire which upheld it. The Romance tongue of that day, variable and

* Maffei—*Storia della Letteratura Italiana.*

imperfect in its construction, without rules of spelling and differing greatly in one country from another, did not possess in itself the qualities necessary for a great and enduring language; it could only be a stepping-stone to something higher and more complete.

Below I give a specimen of the language Charlemagne was so desirous of popularising, extracted from the oath taken by Louis the German at Strasburg in the year 842, at the conclusion of peace with Charles the Bold.*

"Pro Deo amur et pro Xristian poblo et nostro commun salvament, dist di en avant, in quant Deus savir et podir me dunat; si salvarai jeo cist meon fradre Karlo et in adjuda et in cadhuna cosa, si cum om per dreit son fradra salvar dist; in o quid il mi altresi fazet: et ab Ludher nul plaid numquam prindrai qui, meon vol, cist meon fradre Karlo in damno sit."

Which may be translated as follows:

"By the love of God and by our commou salvation and that of all Christian people, inasmuch as God shall give me knowledge and power, so will I support my brother Charles, here present, by aid and in all other ways, as one ought to support his brother, so long as he shall do the same for me, and will never enter into any treaty with Lothaire by my own wish, in any way prejudicial to my brother Charles."

During the centuries immediately following the reign of Charlemagne, the Romance language gradually perfected itself, thanks especially to the Troubadours, who placed it under stringent and unvarying rules, and fixed, up to a certain point, its orthography. But later on, in France, it split up into two distinct forms, which received respectively the names of the languages of *oï* and *oc*, from the way in which the adverb *oui* was pronounced.

The language of *oï* which was spoken to the north of the Loire, and which contained the germ of modern French, became in time and in spite of its poverty and its

* Barthe—*Histoire de la Langue Française.*

roughness when spoken, the language of the whole country, and this especially owing to the accidental ascendency given it by the unification of France, under a government whose seat was in the north; whilst its rival, although richer, more harmonious and classic in character, was fated to linger on in the south and never take a higher rank than a patois. The following selections will show how considerable a difference existed between the two languages about the twelfth century; but beyond the material difference of dialect, we must notice also those of *form* and *mode of thought* in the two contemporary examples. The first, harmonious in expression though somewhat clumsy in construction, and rich in images drawn from nature and the surrounding scenery, seems a last echo of the old classic poetry; whilst the second, simple, graceful and light, is nothing less than a foreshadowing, in all its characteristics, of the songs and ballads of modern days.

In other words, the Romance tongue was only a fading echo of the Latin; its rival in the north, already lusty and spreading, was soon to develope into French.

Language of oc, 1150.

"Al chans d'auzels comenza ma chanzo,
cant aug chantar la gluenta et aiglos
epels cortils vey verdoyar lo luis
la blava flors qe par entr'els boissos,
el riu clar corien sobr'els sablos
la u s'espand la blanca flor des lis."

Its equivalent in the French of the present day would be much as follows:

"Aux chants des oiseaux, commença ma chanson, quand se mettent à chanter le pinson et l'aigle, quand dans les épais berceaux je vois verdoyer la terre, que la fleur bleue fleurit entre les buissons et que le ruisseau clair court sur les sables où s'épanouit la blanche fleur des lis."

Below is an English version, in which I have endeavoured to reproduce the form and arrangement of rhymes of the original; but a literal translation would have sounded almost ludicrous to modern ears:

"When 'rose the song of birds, began my song,
(both king and humblest songster swell the strain);
around thick arbours, green grass waving free,
and blue flowers mingling with the golden grain;
clear streams course gaily to the same refrain
with water-lilies floating joyously."

A. C. D.

Language of oi, 1160.

"Quand florist la violette
la rose et la flor de glai,
que chantent li papegai,
lors mi poignent amorettes,
qui me tiennent gai.

"Mes pièça ne chantai;
or chanterai
et ferai
chanson joliette
pour l'amour de m'amiette
où grand pièça me donnai."

The following is an English version:

"When blooms the violet, when in summer hours,
comes forth the rose and stately iris grand,
when pigeon-coos are heard o'er all the land,
within my heart love's fancies come in showers,
my soul rejoicing more than do the flowers.

"Ne'er yet have I poured forth these thoughts in song,
but now will (since delay hath been too long),
my lady tell of mine affection strong,
and charm her ear with sweet melodious verse
wherein love's rapturous joys I will rehearse,
the bliss that doth to mutual joy belong."

J. Y.

In Italy the formation of the modern tongue followed a different process; in the centre of the Peninsula Latin was still a living tongue, spoken by all, whilst the endless recollections attaching themselves to the idioms of Cicero and Virgil helped to preserve the ancient language from outside and foreign influences. The Barbarians of Northern Europe who were able to impose their inflections and their pronunciation upon, and completely to destroy the character of the language of the conquered peoples of France and Northern Italy (owing to the ignorance of the inhabitants and their use of an unwritten patois), fared differently however, amongst the cultivated people of Tuscany. For here exactly the reverse took place, and the conquerors were irresistibly compelled to adopt the language of the vanquished country, which they assimilated to their own by the adoption of articles, classification under grammatical rules, and the abbreviation of words.

"The Goth," says Perticari,* "who wished for bread, and who heard the Latin people he had come amongst say, '*Da mihi illum panem,*' sought to imitate them in his desire to be understood and said, '*Da mi . . . il . . . pane.*'"

Here the modern construction of the sentence is found, and the article formed out of a Latin pronoun.

Under such conditions, then, one can well imagine that the French language would evolve itself far less quickly than the Italian. And such indeed was the case, for about the end of the eleventh century, the latter had almost attained its present form; a proof of which we find when we examine one of the oldest examples of Italian that we possess, viz. the somewhat amorous verses of Piero delle Vigne,† the poet

* *Della difesa di Dante.*

† *Piero delle Vigne*, a native of Capua, who by his eloquence and legal knowledge raised himself from a very humble condition to the office of

of the court of the Emperor Frederick II., the earliest patron and protector of the newly born language.* Below is an extract with an English paraphrase:

"Com hom ch'è in mar, ed ha spene di gire
quando vede lo tempo, ed ello spanna,
vostro amore mi tiene in tal desire,
e donami speranza di si gran gioia,
che non curo sia doglia o sia martire,
membrando l'hora ch'io vengo da voi.

"Like to a sailor then, by tempests backward driven,
his little bark, sore tost by storm and wave—
when lo! a soft wind blows, new hopes to him are given,
joy fills his heart, his craft he yet may save.
'Tis thus thy love doth raise my soul to highest heaven,
as thy displeasure laid it in its grave."

A. C. D.

At the time of Dante—that is, towards the end of the thirteenth century—the Italian language was definitely formed, whilst even a century later French, both as spoken and written, strongly recalls the language of *oï* of the *trouvères*. Here is a specimen of the French of that day as it existed and was written in Paris at the time of Louis XI.: it is part of a ballad by François Villon, celebrating the heroines of history, and so charming in character that its refrain has become a proverb throughout France:

Chancellor to the Emperor Frederick II. The courtiers, envious of his exalted position, contrived by means of forged letters to make Frederick believe that he held a secret and traitorous intercourse with the Pope. In consequence of this he was condemned to lose his eyes, and in despair dashed his brains out against the walls of a church, in the year 1245. Both Piero and Frederick composed verses in the Sicilian dialect, which are still extant; a canzone by each may be seen in the 9th Book of the *Sonetti* and *Canzoni di diversi autori Toscani*, published by Guinti in 1527.—A. C. D.

* Maffei—*Storia della Letteratura Italiana.*

" Dictes-moi où, ne en quel pays,
est Flora la belle Romaine,
Archipiada ne Thaïs,
qui fut sa cousine germaine;
echo parlant quand bruyt on maine
dessus rivière ou sus estan,
qui beautté eut trop plus que humaine?
Mais où sont les neiges d'antan?

" La royne blanche comme ung lys,
qui chantait à voix de sereine;
Berthe au grand pié, Biétrix, Alix,
Harembouges qui tint le Mayne?
Et Jehanne la bonne Lorraine,
que Angloys bruslèrent à Rouen?
Où sont-ils, vierge souveraine?
Mais où sont les neiges d'antan?" *

———

" Tell me now in what strange air
the Roman Flora dwells to-day.
Where Archippiada hides, and where
beautiful Thais has passed away?
Whence answers Echo, afield, astray
by mere or stream,—around, below?
Lovelier she than a woman of clay;
nay, but where is the last year's snow?

" Where's that White Queen, a lily rare,
with her sweet song, the Siren's lay?
Where's Bertha Broadfoot, Beatrice fair?
Alys and Ermengarde, where are they?
Good Joan, whom English did betray
in Rouen town, and burned her? No,
maiden and queen, no man may say;
nay, but where is the last year's snow?"

* Through the kindness of Mr. Andrew Lang I am enabled to insert his adaptation of the foregoing ballad, the whole of which may be found in his spirited little collection of verses entitled *XXXII Ballades in Blue China*.—A. C. D.

The French and Italian languages once formed and definitely fixed by the most certain means possible, viz. the introduction of printing, the various dialects fell necessarily into the background and underwent no further modification. And of these dialects, or patois, the Italian peninsula possesses an extraordinary number; for, with the exception of Tuscany, all the great geographical divisions of the country speak a distinct one, which, though very dissimilar in its construction, even to that of its nearest neighbour, yet has sufficient resemblance to all to enable those speaking it to understand the others without much difficulty.

The existence of these dialects, which are used by all classes and upon all occasions when not compelled to employ the national or official language, affords a subject of the most interesting study to the enthusiastic philologist. But one cannot fail most keenly to deplore it, looking upon the question from an educational standpoint; for no doubt *here* it is a serious obstacle, from the fact that when a child is taught to read, he is compelled to do so in a language which is quite new to him.

The Italian dialects in the present day, then, are the result of the varied and successive influences through which the Peninsula has passed, and may be roughly classified as follows:—(1) There is the original language of each province, which has lingered on, a shadow of its former self, for many centuries. (2) The immigration of the barbarous hordes from the north, which differed in importance in one province from another. (3) The invasion of foreign armies of the Middle Ages and even in modern times; and (4) the two official languages which followed one after the other, Latin and then Italian. And the

traces left by these influences are so decisively marked, that they enable us to interpret correctly the peculiar accent of each patois, the special words natural to them, and their local idioms, and to discover, in each one of the dialects of the Peninsula, the special history of the people who speak it.

Thus the Genoese exchange the *b* and the *p* for *g* and *c*, which is probably a reminiscence of the primitive idiom of Liguria: using *gianco* for *bianco, Taggia* for *Tabbia, ciù* for *più, cian* for *piano*; in addition to arbitrarily crippling many words (this, no doubt, arising from the influence of the Goths), such as *Albissola* for *Alba Docilia, Vintimilium* for *Albintemelium, Mostaccini* for *Mons Stationis.**

The dialects of Upper Italy, harsh in sound and abounding in consonants and quaint contractions, have preserved nothing of the sonorous harmony of the magnificent Romance language, which, had it not been for the chance of political events, might have become the language of France.

Romance is limited in the present day to the territory comprised between the Alps and the Pyrenees, and here it is spoken almost in its original purity; perhaps, indeed, it is amongst the mountains of the "County" of Nice that the language of the Troubadours has experienced the least change.

Here are some specimens of the Niçois dialect, and it is interesting to remark the harmony this patois presents with those verses in the Romance tongue reproduced a few pages back:

* It is customary to say *la torre dei Mostaccini*, but it would be more in harmony with the origin of the name to use the singular—*del Mostaccini*.

"La filoua vigilanta non va mai senza camia.

"Si couccià de buon'ora et si levà de buon matin, procura sanità, fortuna e sagessa.

"Se aimas la vida non prodighes lo temp; car lo temp es l'estofa de la vida.

"Coura lo pous es sec si conoisse la valour de l'aiga.

"Acheu che va sercà un che li preste, si va sercà una mortificassion."

Most of the above are very familiar to us in their English form:

"The industrious seamstress never lacks clothes.

"Early to bed and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.

"If you care for life, don't waste your time; for time is what life is made of.

"When the well runs dry, one learns what water is worth.

"He who goes a borrowing goes a sorrowing."

The Genoese dialect, spoken throughout the territory which formed the Ligurian Republic of 1797, is a particularly rich and sonorous one; for, quite opposed to that of the Piedmontese (which slurs over the vowels and strongly accents the consonants), it suppresses the latter and doubles the former. This tendency exists above all in Western Liguria, where the diphthongs, contracted into one sound by the Genoese, preserve their pronunciation as two distinct vowels, strongly accentuated. I give a few examples: *aiga* for *ægua, faeto* for *fæto*, and *andaeto* for *andæto*.

The following verses, extracted from the *Lunajo do Scio Tocca*, will give the reader an idea of the modern patois of the Genoese:

A MEIXINNA.

SUNETTO.

" *Cui bono* l'arte medica in sostansa ?
I marotti a guarì con estenuâli.
Quæ son de questa i fruti principali ?
Che con ciù a fa teorie, meno a s'avansa.

Quæ son i megio fra i medicinali ?
Ægua cada, riposo e temperansa.
De salute quæ son i vei segnali ?
Testa fresca, pê cadi e netta a pansa.

Perchè i meghi han pe-ô ciù tanto sussiego ?
Perchè ô nobile e ô ricco ô spera in lô.
Chi ha ciù bon a scampà un secolo intrego ?

Chi ô speziâ no frequenta, nè ô dottô.
Cose guagna chi in casa ha sempre ô mego ?
D'andâsene ciû presto co-ô Segnô."

CHAPTER XVI.

THE RIVIERA IN OLDEN DAYS.

BY ALFRED C. DOWSON.

Travelling in the Middle Ages—Difficulties of coast path—Noteworthy travellers : Dante—St. Catherine of Siena—Lady Blessington's impressions of Liguria—Opening of the Cornice Road in 1828—Mules superseded by diligence and post-chaise—Extract from 'Miss Angel.'

IN previous chapters an endeavour has been made to give some idea of Bordighera from its earliest historic days up to those of our own, its first development, its various struggles and sufferings, its long dependence on Ventimiglia, its hardly earned freedom, and, finally, its condition as we see it now,—a rapidly rising wintering place.

The history of some of the adjacent towns of interest has also been slightly touched upon, and it has been shown that with many of them their fortunes and those of Bordighera were identical. It may not, then, be uninteresting, before passing to other aspects of the place, to endeavour to recall a few of the noteworthy travellers who have journeyed by these lovely, if rugged shores; to give some idea of the perils and discomforts which were associated with travelling in the Middle Ages along the Ligurian coast (and not then only, but until the completion of the Cornice Road in 1828); and reproduce some of the feelings which passed their minds as they first gazed on the same blue sky and sea, and the same glorious mountains which now delight us. And one cannot help wondering, *en passant*, how many of the thousands of modern travellers who yearly visit this coast—travelling from Paris, or perhaps, even from Calais, in a luxurious *coupé lit*, and whose greatest discomfort has been a broken night's rest and the custom-house at Ventimiglia—ever cast a thought as to *how* travellers fared in bygone days, not ten or twenty years ago, when there was neither railway nor "*Rapide*"; but any time within the past eight hundred years, before the existence of the *Cornice*, when the only means of transit was by a small sailing craft, or on mules along a narrow path as steep as it was dangerous.

But there *were* travellers in those days, and even before them. For, without going back to the time when the Roman Empire extended "from the greater to the lesser sea," let us think for a moment of the Papacy in its most brilliant period, when embassies, missions and pilgrimages, soldiers and priests, envoys, monks and troubadours, passed continually along the coast; when Provence was

not, as now, a geographical expression, but an important State, and the dangers from corsair and tempest rendered a land journey, perilous as that was, at least safer than one by sea.

And first of all we will turn to one of the greatest who ever passed along these shores: no less a one than the poet Dante, who must have toiled along the winding coast path—the survival of the older Aurelian Way—which, as he says, "led from Spezia to Turbia," many times in his varied wanderings; and we can well imagine how his poetic imagination must have been charmed as the various beauties of the coast opened themselves out before him. We have seen in the stanzas quoted on page 59, how the steepness and ruggedness of this stony and winding track suggested to him an image of the road out of Purgatory; and we know that it was not from his imagination, wonderful as it was, that he drew the graphic picture, but from actual and painful experience of the roughness and badness of the road in question.

Mrs. Oliphant, in her most charming book, "The Makers of Florence," gives us a touching picture of the heart-sick and weary poet on one of these journeys.

It is a letter from the Prior of the Convent of Santa Croce, which was "situated on the hills overlooking the lovely bay of Spezia," to a friend, telling him of a visit from Dante, who, turned back again from the gates of his beloved Florence, sought and found in the quiet and soothing atmosphere of the monastery a temporary resting-place before starting, most probably on foot, for the north: possibly for Paris, or to study at Oxford, as some historians believe. The letter is too long for insertion here, simple and pathetic as it is; but I cannot forbear

quoting a few lines from it, and also the translator's comments on the same; as they illustrate the subject of this chapter, and give us a poetic if somewhat imaginative picture of the lonely and exiled poet as he sadly wanders westward along the rocky coast road of Liguria.

The letter opens with an account of the poet wearily standing, waiting for admittance, outside the monastery gates. It was, as far as it is possible to judge, about the year 1310, and, as I have mentioned, just after Dante had made a *third* unsuccessful attempt to return to Florence; "and sick at heart, the poet was probably at this moment on his way to the northern side of the Alps, and to the alien world far from Italy, or perhaps to one of the castles upon the sunny hills above the eastern Riviera of that Malaspina who was one of Dante's protectors." He appears to have been anxious to leave some work he had lately completed with the good prior "before he wended his way into those strange and barbarous countries, whither he went in exile and poverty and something like despair." Fra Ilario continues: "His intention being to travel into ultramontane regions, he passed through the Diocese of Luini, and either from devotion to the place or from some other cause, came to this monastery. As he was unknown to me and my brethren, I asked, when I saw him, 'What would you?' And he answering not a word, but gazing at the building, I asked him again what he sought. He then, looking round upon me, answered 'Peace.' . . . And then the translator continues,—

"This vivid and touching glimpse of the wandering poet, already so well known that the eager monk could see at once what manner of man he was, and recognised him as soon as he had talked to him, disperses the shadows for one brief moment, and lights up the gloom in which the wanderer was almost lost to us. Who could it have been but

Dante? straying abstracted by the convent walls, looking at the building while the curious friars surrounded him with their questions, saying out of his deep, weary, melancholy soul the one word 'Peace,' when they asked him what he wanted. Alas! that was the thing he was not to have any more than the rest of the world. . . .

"Only for a moment, however, is such a glimpse of the great wayfarer permitted to us. Very soon he has to resume his journey, leaving the sheltering convent, where the kind prior admired and wondered over his great work, solitary and sad, yet noting with glowing, abstracted eyes every natural feature of the way, transplanting the 'wild and broken paths' between Lerici and Turbia into his Purgatory, and receiving into his heart the music of the sea and the winds. Gazing wistfully from those heights over that loveliest of sea lines, perhaps hearing softly behind him, as he went forth, the sound of Fra Ilario's convent bells, what softening moisture must have stolen into the poet's eyes as the magical momentary Italian twilight grew dim over the shining water between night and day. . . . Not on so peaceful a sea as the Mediterranean was Dante's voyage, but as he gazed over the resplendent waters and listened to the distant bell, and saw the soft day die before him, drawing a sudden veil over her sunset glories, what a touch of tender sadness was that which made him think of the *naviganti*, the parting sailors who had that day bidden sweet friends farewell! He too was saying farewell to sweet friends, to dear hopes, to Italy, while yet one of the fairest of landscapes held him, and the soft dying cadence of the religious bell pursued him like a recalling voice."

With one more quotation, but this time from another source (viz. Ruskin's 'Modern Painters') I will leave Dante and pass to others who followed in his footsteps. It is in reference to the same subject, however, the steepness of the Ligurian coast-path, and the suitableness of the similes Dante draws from it, that Mr. Ruskin writes: but how true are his words, only those know who have either on foot or by carriage followed the Cornice between the two points named in the stanzas referred to.

"The similes" (says Mr. Ruskin) "in vol. iii. of the above-mentioned work, "with which Dante illustrates the steepness of that ascent (viz. from Purgatory), are all taken from the Riviera of Genoa, now traversed by a good carriage-road under the name of the Cornice; but as the road did not exist in Dante's time, and the steep precipices and promontories were then probably traversed by footpaths, which, as they necessarily passed in many places over crumbling and slippery limestone, were doubtless not a little dangerous: and as in a manner they command the bays of the sea below and lie exposed to the full blaze of the south-eastern sun, they corresponded precisely to the situation of the path by which he ascended from the Purgatorial sea, the image could not possibly have been taken from a better source for the fully conveying his idea to the reader; nor, by the way, is there reason to discredit in this place his powers of climbing; for with his usual accuracy, he has taken the angle of the path for us, saying it was considerably more than 45. Now a continuous mountain slope of 45 is already quite unsafe either for ascent or descent, except by zig-zag paths, and a greater slope than this could not be climbed straightforward by the help of crevices or jags in the rocks and physical exertion besides."

But let us pass on towards the end of the century, and we shall come upon another and hardly less distinguished traveller journeying along the Riviera, though on this occasion it is a woman with a small escort on mules or horses, not a solitary pedestrian, who attracts our notice; no less a personage, indeed, than Catherine of Siena on her noble errand of bringing back the Papal court to Rome: the only means of restoring peace and order in her beloved Italy. And apart from the historic and sentimental interest of this celebrated journey and the noble picture it presents us of a woman's courage and determination overcoming all difficulties (of which physical weakness was not the least), there are two points brought out by it bearing on the subject of this chapter, viz.: the time it occupied and the state of the coast-path. For we find, first, that the journey from Florence to Avignon, which, thanks to the railway, now takes less than twenty-four hours, was then a question of weeks; and, secondly.

that no improvement whatever had taken place in this, the *only* coast road between Provence and Italy, during the sixty or seventy years which had elapsed since Dante's account of it; and that the same difficulties and dangers, the same sharp turns and steep and stony descents, were still to be found there. The fact also of this journey of St. Catherine and her escort having been such a lengthy one, gives us a very good idea of the time consumed in travelling in those days; for we know that hers was one where *speed* was of the greatest importance, and her party being only small, and well mounted, would naturally push forward with fewer delays than usual. But what do we find? That with all her anxiety to reach her destination quickly, it took Catherine nearly three weeks to travel from Florence to Avignon!

"She left," we are told, "the former city as Ambassador of the Florentines to Pope Gregory, in the summer of 1376, in the early days of June;" and though suffering in health, her illness being aggravated by the heat and the fatigues of the journey, she travelled with as great a speed as was possible. Her journey for the first few days would pass smoothly enough along the valley of the Arno and across the flat country lying at the foot of the Carrara Mountains, until she arrived at Spezia. Here, however, the road almost immediately changes in character, and becomes, as we have just seen it described, steep, rocky, and dangerous, as it winds around or across the many headlands lying between Spezia and Genoa; and then again, after a day's journey of smoother travelling, resumes its better known and wilder features until it crosses the Var. To quote the words of Mrs. Butler in her charming life of this saint, "We can only *imagine* what

the toils, or indeed the pleasures of this journey may have been, along the beautiful Riviera, passing beyond the Maritime Alps and the Estérel, by Fréjus and Toulon, to Marseilles, and thence through the flat and desolate portions of the department of the *Bouches du Rhône*, entering the sunny and verdant lands of Provence." * "Catherine," she tells us, "lost no time on her way, being impatient to reach her destination," and yet it was not until the 18th of June that this long and most exhausting journey came to an end, and the little party entered the gates of the old Provençal city. And only those *forestieri* who have remained on the Riviera as late as the date mentioned will be able to form any idea of what fatigue and suffering this delicate but determined woman must have gone through, riding continually for so many days along this rugged path, exposed to the full force of an almost tropical sun. Indeed, to show with what feelings such a journey was viewed in those days, and how grave were considered the perils of all kinds which encompassed it, it is only needful to make a quotation from the Bull for the Canonization of Catherine, issued by Pius II. in 1461, wherein were set forth the various acts entitling her to that honour: and amongst which we find it specially stated, "that, to reconcile the Florentines and the Church, she did not hesitate *even* to cross the Apennines and the Alps in order to reach Gregory our predecessor."

I have not here space to refer to other noteworthy travellers who, during the Middle Ages, journeyed through Liguria, but will leap at once over several centuries and see what an English lady, and she an authoress too!

* Mrs. Butler appears to forget that Catherine had entered Provence on crossing the Var.—A. C. D.

thought of this coast-road at the commencement of the present century.

The individual in question was the well-known Lady Blessington, the friend of Byron; and the work from which I have gained the information I now place before the reader is her 'Idler in Italy,' which, though rarely opened in the present day, met with a great success on its first appearance; although in looking through it now, and remembering that the work in question passed through several editions, one is filled with wonder that readers could have borne the moralisings which occur in every page, without throwing it aside in absolute weariness.

But for us it has an especial interest, as it contains an account of a coast journey from Nice to Savona prior to the opening of the Cornice; and we learn from it that the path was still a mule track, and as rough and stony as when Dante and St. Catherine passed over it, four centuries before; and that unless a traveller was prepared to *rough it*, be he lord or pedler, he had better stay at home.

We will make our acquaintance with her ladyship and party at Nice, at which town we find them, like most travellers who arrived at that point of the journey, debating as to the manner of proceeding; for they were bound to Florence, where they proposed to spend the spring.

"The usual route by land," she tells us, "is over the Col di Tenda and viâ Turin, but this being impracticable, owing to snow (the date is March 21st), and as we had a strong objection to a voyage in a *felucca*, we determined to proceed to Genoa by the route of the Cornice, which admits of but two modes of conveyance, a *chaise à porteurs* or on horseback, or rather on mule-back."

Think of this, luxurious traveller of the present day! You who, leaving Nice by the 4.40 P.M. express, grumble

violently if you are not deposited punctually in the brightly lit station at Genoa by 11.20; and yet the state of locomotion just referred to was barely seventy years ago!

But to return to her ladyship.

The Cornice Road, as has been previously mentioned, was commenced by Napoleon some years before his fall, and at the time we are speaking of was partially opened; but evidently that portion where wheels could pass was in a most incomplete state, for the writer mentions, "We were enabled, as far as Mentone, to use one of the light carriages of the country, but here we must have recourse to mules, which our courier is now busily examining." Of course she falls into ecstasies over the views, "which surpassed our expectations," and in a less degree over the road, "which is remarkably good and bears indelible mark of him who planned it; boldly designed and solidly constructed, with a disregard to difficulties or a complete triumph over them, it reminds one of that daring man who said he disbelieved in impossibilities,"—and so on for half a page. The village of Turbia and the ruin next attract her attention, and she was naturally anxious to obtain some information as to the latter's history, but the custom-house officer—for it is the Monaco frontier—could only inform her "in a very pompous manner, 'that it was a very fine and ancient ruin, well worthy of the attention of travellers.'" Soon afterwards the first view of Monaco fills her with delight. "It looked at a distance like a town built by children, and its pigmy white houses, peeping out from groves of olive, orange, and lemon trees, have a beautiful appearance." Another page of rapture must be imagined, in which occurs this somewhat peculiar sen-

tence: "At each step some new and attractive view fills us with admiration, and begets the desire of fixing upon some one of the various beautiful *sights* (*sic*) for a residence!"

A house built upon a "sight" would prove, one would imagine, a veritable *Château en Espagne!*

At Mentone, she tells us, she went to the *Hôtel de Turin*, "which was in a state of primitive simplicity; for it did not even possess a tea-pot! The landlady indeed had possessed one, the only one in the town, and that given her by Lady Bute, but in an evil hour it had been broken by having been placed on the fire to boil water;" a somewhat dissimilar state of things to Mentone as we know it now.

Here the party mounted mules, and evidently mule-back was not so conducive to moralising as sitting in a carriage, for the authoress is much more practical during this portion of the journey than previously. She mentions the bridge of St. Louis being then finished, but oddly enough places it "about six miles from Mentone," and then refers to the dilatory way in which the works for the Cornice were being carried on, "some eight or ten labourers being employed where one hundred ought to be." They slept at Ventimiglia, "the inn being extremely bad in every respect, except not being unclean;" and Lady Blessington adds that she was very much struck during the whole length of this mule journey, a ride in fact from one end of Liguria to the other, "with the wonderful attention paid to cleanliness, for nowhere have we seen ought approaching to the untidiness and dirt we had so much reason to complain of in France." And so day by day the little party jogged onwards, and it will perhaps give a better

idea of the mode of travelling on this coast, prior to the opening of the Cornice, if I insert her account of it.

"There cannot be a more agreeable mode of travelling than on mules; their pace, which is an amble, a movement between a quick walk and a trot, is not fatiguing; and the animals are so sure-footed they seldom make a false step even on the worst roads. Our party consists of thirteen persons, and to these two muleteers are allotted, whose duty it is to whip on the mules and to lead them over those portions of the road which are considered dangerous. It is distressing to see these poor men trotting along, covered with dust, and half dissolved beneath the rays of the sun, which is really scorching, though we are only at the end of March.* . . . The saddles on which women ride here resemble the pillions used in Ireland, except that they have backs and sides formed of leather and stuffed with hair. The rider sits side-ways with her feet supported by a band, which is suspended like a stirrup. . . . The route sometimes diverges from the sea-side and passes through ravines thickly wooded, but the sea is seldom lost sight of for more than fifteen or sixteen minutes, and the return to it always gives pleasure. Sometimes our route, if *route* it may be called,—for in many places it is but a wild track,—passes over the ledge of rocks hundreds of feet above the sea, which is on our right, while the rocks themselves rise so high above the track to the left, that nothing but the heavens and the azure mirror which reflects them is visible. The heat, during the time occupied in travelling along such parts, is very great, for the high barrier of rocks that towers above it intercepts the air, and reflects the rays of the sun like a burning glass. The track often descends to the sandy beach on which a very narrow portion is left uncovered by the sea that bathes the feet of the mules, two only of which can pass abreast on the sand."

In this manner the cavalcade worked its way slowly along the narrow coast-path with apparently no more exciting incident† than that caused by a human skull being

* If this was Lady Blessington's experience in March, we may infer what St. Catherine suffered in June!

† Lady Blessington seems to have been more fortunate than some other English travellers who passed along the same path a few years before—two English ladies and their brother; for in crossing one of the torrents they were

rolled by the waves at the feet of the authoress, or her mule rather, which gives an opportunity, too tempting to be thrown away, for two pages of fine writing! However, they arrive at Savona on the evening of the sixth day after leaving Mentone, at which town the journey on mule-back commenced; and in spite of her ladyship's enthusiasm for this even then old-fashioned mode of travelling, it is difficult to believe she was sorry to find again a carriage-road and "proceed to Genoa in coaches of the country."

Such then was travelling in Liguria up to the opening of the Cornice in 1828, at which period the heavy travelling carriage of *Milord Anglais*, and the still heavier diligence, were enabled to pass on a good road the entire distance between Marseilles and Genoa. Grand days these, not only for the *Vetturino* and all his numerous kin, but for all travellers who really cared to see something of the country through which they passed, and to whom neither time nor money were important.

But in 1873 the railway was opened throughout between the same two important towns, and another and still more remarkable change took place. For the *Rapide* now brought the impatient tourist in thirty hours from Paris to the frontier, where, after half-an-hour's delay and the discomforts of the Douane, another express train in four hours would land him at Genoa; a hasty glimpse between countless tunnels, of blue sea and wonderful capes on one side, and grey mountains, pine and olive-clad hills, and now and then an orange or lemon valley on the other,

nearly swept away, and only saved with difficulty. One of these ladies also kept a diary, and published it in 1817, but it does not appear to have met with the same success as that from which I have been quoting.

being his confused recollection of the Riviera! Alas! both the time and the men have changed, and, to quote the words of a modern author:*

"Not for them the joyous assembling on the Mediterranean shore, where Nice lies basking in the sun, like pink surf thrown up by the waves. Not for them the packing of the great carriages, and the swinging away of the four horses with their jingling bells, and the slow climbing of the Cornice, the road twisting up the face of the grey mountains, through perpetual lemon groves, with far below the ribbed blue sea. Not for them the leisurely trotting all day long through the luxuriant beauty of the Riviera,—the sun hot on the ruddy cliffs of granite and on the terraces of figs and vines and spreading palms [no doubt, here he has Bordighera in his mind], nor rattling through the narrow streets of old walled towns, with scarlet-capped men and swarthy-visaged women shrinking into door-ways as the horses clatter by; nor the quiet evenings in the hotel garden, with the moon rising over the murmuring sea and the air sweet with the perfume of the south."

I cannot conclude this chapter more fitly than by transferring to it a bright little sketch of Bordighera by Miss Thackeray, in her—but slightly idealised—life of Angelica Kauffman, entitled "Miss Angel"; especially as it refers to a rest made by some travellers along this coast in the eighteenth century; and the few clever touches in which she gives her impression of the place, "the sunshine everywhere, the avenue of lemons and olives, the shepherd followed by his goats, and they by the two children in their goat-skin coats [how well one knows them! wandering up and down the *Via Romana*, the half-starved flock, nibbling at the scanty herbage beneath the olives], the ivy-grown wall, &c. &c.,"—all these cannot fail to bring back Bordighera to those who have once visited it.

She has, however, been guilty of an amusing anachron-

* W. Black: the quotation is from *Sunrise*.

ism, which I daresay has escaped the notice of the larger number of those who have read the book. It consists in making the heavy *travelling carriage*, which contains Miss Angel and the Ambassador's party, *change horses* at Bordighera! The journey in question, however, is supposed to take place in the middle of the last century (about the year 1765), when—alas! for Miss Thackeray's unities—there was, as we have seen, nothing but a mule-path existing between Savona and Nice.

But now for the extract.

After describing the journey through the plains of Lombardy, "in their beauty and tranquillity," and then the sight of the Mediterranean "with its long rolling breakers, its bordering groves and hills, where olives climb the steep declivities, and from their smoking pyre rise white villages, like flames bursting from the summits," she continues—

"They stopped to change horses at a little place called Bordighera, on the Mediterranean. . . . Here the sun came out and the clouds disappeared: a sort of dimmed brightness was everywhere. It lay on the sea, on the village, in a little smiling grove beyond a wall, where a small gate hung on its hinges. Miss Angel went up a little way along an avenue of lemon and of olives, and breathed the sweet morning pastoral silence. She came to an old ivy-grown well, as she walked and sat down, resting upon its margin. The pretty pensive figure itself was not unsuggestive, looking thoughtfully down into the water. Her heart beat with hope, with a sort of romantic delight and sweet absurdity. Some peasants passed: a woman carrying a load of leaves and tendrils of vines, and driving a beautiful white cow with long arched horns. Then came a shepherd followed by some goats trotting with tinkling bells, and lastly, two little children with goat-skin coats; one had her hands full of leaves and olives. The youngest was carrying something held carefully against its little breast. The child looked with two wild eyes at the pretty lady leaning against the old iron clank of the well. Something in her look invited confidence, and he held up a little dead bird as he passed.

"'What are you going to do with it?' Angel asked kindly.

"'We are going to dig a grave,' said the child. 'It is dead:' and the little thing walked on with careful steps."

Where can we find a prettier picture? The graceful girl in the becoming dress of that period, which Leslie's canvases have made us all familiar with, resting on the ivy-grown well; around and behind, lemons and olives forming a background, and rising beyond again, the white houses of the old town, glistening in the sunshine, and in front the two dark-eyed children in their rough goatskins, looking up into Angel's face. And yet, charming as it is, not a more suggestive subject for an artist's brush than may be seen, not once but many times, even in the present day, by all who journey with their eyes open along these Ligurian shores.

CHAPTER XVII.

BRITISH OPERATIONS ON THE RIVIERA IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

BY ALFRED C. DOWSON.

Origin of the Spanish war of 1737—Captain Jenkins and his ear—Admiral Matthews appointed to command of British fleet—Complaints as to the inefficiency of ships—Captures French troops—Fortifies Turbia and Villa Franca—Spanish agents collecting supplies of grain, &c., at Ventimiglia—Letters giving particulars of same—Order to Captain Martin to destroy them—What actually took place—Tobias Smollett and the Young Pretender.

TOWARDS the conclusion of Chapter XI., in that portion which treats of the vicissitudes of Ventimiglia, the reader may have been struck by the mention, quite incidentally, of the taking and sacking of that town by the English,

under Admiral Matthews. He may perhaps have wondered what brought the fleet into the neighbourhood, and why so extreme and savage a proceeding was necessary. Such at least was the feeling of the writer of the present chapter; and as no information regarding it was to be found in the naval histories of that period, and having a strong impression that local tradition had greatly exaggerated what really occurred, he obtained permission to examine the Admiralty records of the year when the attack was said to have taken place. The result was as he had expected; but as the search opened up a new phase of English naval history to him, he has thought that other visitors to the Riviera, even if not sharing his ignorance, might yet care to know something of the causes which led to the English appearing as belligerents on the Ligurian coast, and also details of the operations against Ventimiglia which had given rise to the tradition just referred to.

Before, however, I take notice of the special operations carried on in this neighbourhood by Admiral Matthews during the years 1742–43, a few words as to the origin of the war, the cause of its extending to this coast, and the reason of our taking part in it, may not be uncalled for; for why, if we were at war with Spain (as the reader may remember was the case), were we blockading the coast of Liguria and Provence from Genoa to the mouth of the Rhone? The answer is a long one, but I will endeavour to give it in as few words as possible.

For the past hundred years—indeed, since the reign of Elizabeth—the efforts of the English to trade with the Spanish South American colonies, and the determination of the latter Government to put a stop to this trading,

had led to endless conflicts; for, whether there was war or peace in Europe, it was always war south of the Equator. And this mutual irritation, year by year increasing, was fanned in England by the claim of the Spanish cruisers to search all English vessels in those seas, and brought to a white heat by an incident which, though occurring some years previously, only became generally known in England about a year or eighteen months before the declaration of war.

This was the mutilation of an English sailor (Jenkins by name) by cutting off his ear; and this comparatively trivial incident, like the quarrel for the possession of the key of the Holy Sepulchre in 1853, had the gravest possible results, one of the minor ones of which was the blockade of the Ligurian coast, the subject of this chapter. The mutilation took place in the Gulf of Florida in 1731, and for *seven* years Captain Jenkins, with his countrymen's tenacity, kept his precious relic "wrapped up in cotton wool," showing it to all he came across as an instance of the indignities we were experiencing at the hands of Spain and her cruisers. "And he, a peaceful trader, too!"

Of course much correspondence took place between the two Governments: conferences were held, and conventions, to settle the above-mentioned question of trading, were prepared. But the English nation, in spite of Walpole, was determined upon war; a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to go into the whole question, especially the alleged cruelties. Jenkins, naturally being called before it, appeared in triumph at the bar of the House with his ear in his hand, and, adds Carlyle, "gave a graphic account of his sufferings."

Walpole's obstinacy was, however, great, and war was not finally declared until November 1737, but then amid great rejoicings: even the church bells being rung, which act led to the great statesman's bitter remark, "You are ringing your bells now; before long you will be wringing your hands!" With the varying fortunes of the war, so far as the expeditions to South America are concerned, we have nothing to do here, but only with certain operations in the Mediterranean, which are interesting to recall now that the Riviera is so well known, physically at least, to the modern English traveller.

The English fleet in the Mediterranean at this time was under the command of Admiral Haddock, who received orders to blockade the chief ports of Spain without delay. But the death of Charles of Austria in the following year, and the general scramble that took place immediately for a share of his possessions, gave the war a much more complicated character; and, so far as the south of Europe was concerned, divided the belligerents into two parties—Spain, with France as a secret ally, opposed to England and the King of Sardinia.

The relations of England and France, however, during the earlier years of this long struggle, were most extraordinary; for, though we were actively engaged against each other, we were still theoretically at peace! a state of things almost as difficult to understand as if one was told "that a door was neither shut nor open."

It is true that a powerful English fleet blockaded the French coast from the Var to the mouths of the Rhone from the commencement of 1740, and that an English army, with its Dutch and Austrian allies, had been manœuvring against the French forces in Germany

during the whole of 1742; it is true, further, that we fought a battle against the French in the following summer, with an English king as commander-in-chief, and that in February 1744 the blockading fleet just mentioned engaged the French and Spanish fleets off Toulon; but yet, strange as it may sound, war was not finally declared by France against England until a month later than the last-mentioned encounter, viz. in March of the same year! *A propos* to which, Carlyle remarks, "Not yet at war then, after so much killing?" Oh, no! reader, mere "allies of belligerents hitherto!"

But now, to turn more particularly to the British fleet, and see what it had been about during the two or three previous years, when, so far as France was concerned, war had *not* been declared! For some months it was engaged in the dreary work of keeping the Spanish ports blockaded, and nothing of interest is to be found in its proceedings. The Spanish Court, or the Queen Mother rather, who was the ruling spirit, was anxious enough to get to work, and for that purpose had collected 15,000 men at Barcelona. But, unfortunately for her, though the *men* were at Barcelona, the transports and Spanish fleet were at Cadiz, and that port strictly blockaded by a powerful British fleet, still under the command of Haddock. So for some months any embarkation was impossible. However, about the middle of October, to every one's great surprise, the English Admiral withdrew the blockading fleet to Gibraltar to refit, without, strange to say, leaving a single ship to watch the imprisoned Spaniards. Need we add, the latter seized the opportunity; the transports and convoy slipped out and round to Barcelona; the troops, *assisted by the French* (note this!) were speedily embarked,

and by the middle of December landed on the Genoese coast;* the English, who here turned up, "feebly opposing." So decided a step at once compelled Charles Emmanuel, who had hitherto temporised with both parties, to declare openly against Spain; indeed, Carlyle states that the sudden withdrawal of the fleet from Cadiz was believed by many to have been an adroit and diplomatic act, in order that, by allowing the Spanish troops to land on Italian territory, this decision, so anxiously desired, might no longer be delayed.

However, neither with the war in Lombardy and Piedmont, any more than the war in South America, have we anything to do; it is to the English fleet, now scattered along the Provençal and Ligurian coast and blockading, or rather endeavouring to blockade it, to which we must turn our attention. And even here, I must leave unnoticed the various operations, interesting as many were, which were carried out during this period westward of the Var; and content myself with noticing some of those which occurred in the more immediate neighbourhood of Bordighera, soon after Admiral Matthews' appointment.

Matthews appears to have been appointed to the command of the British Mediterranean fleet, some time prior to March 24th, 1742; as we find from the official correspondence of the Admiralty, that he sailed from Portsmouth early in April, in the flagship *Namur*, to take up this important post. The new commander-in-chief

* Carlyle especially mentions *the Genoese coast;* but, as we find not long afterwards an army of 20,000 Spaniards at Antibes, and no mention of another at any other place on the coast, it is difficult not to believe it was the same. See also Matthews' reply to Count Cleerine, when, in reference to the same army, he says, "*part of which was transported in French vessels.*"

had evidently been, for some cause or other, on the retired list, for in the letter informing Admiral Haddock of his successor's appointment, it is stated that his Majesty *has been pleased to restore Mr. Matthews to his rank in the Navy*, and make him Vice-Admiral of the Red."

Why Matthews was chosen for a position as difficult as it was important, where an able diplomatist was almost more necessary than a gallant sailor, it is hard to discover; perhaps the same want of judgment which gave Vernon the command of a powerful fleet and sent Anson away with three small vessels! For we find the new commander, from the very first, seems to take a desponding view of the situation and the insufficiency of the means placed at his disposal for the end in view: no less indeed—as we read from his instructions—than "to destroy the Spanish Ships and Embarkations (?) and the *combined Spanish and French fleets*, when they can be met with; and to assist, protect and defend the States and Dominions in Italy belonging to the Queen of Hungary and the Great (*sic*) Duke (of Tuscany), his Majesty's allies." As early as the date just mentioned (March 24th), whilst still in London and probably immediately after his appointment, we find him writing the first of his long series of entreating or complaining letters to "My Lords"; which give a painful insight into the mismanagement of the Navy at that time, and I fear for many years afterwards.

After the usual formula of his desire, to the utmost of his capacity, to execute all such orders as his grace (the Duke of Newcastle) judges proper to honour him with, he continues: "I am greatly apprehensive from what I know of the condition of His Majesty's Squadron in the Mediterranean, and the verry (*sic*) few ships at present

designed to reinforce it, that I shall not be able to answer His Majesty's expectations." And in this style, week after week, our poor Admiral continues to pour the same melancholy tale into my Lords' unwilling ears, and apparently with hardly any results whatever. Indeed, if half of what Matthews states was true (and I shall, later on, give some particulars of his complaints), our wonder is, not that he did so little on the Ligurian coast, but that he did anything at all!

However, in spite of his despondency, he began energetically enough, by strictly blockading the coast from Ventimiglia westward, and so capturing and preventing the disembarkation of 300 French troops, who were on their way to reinforce the French garrison at Monaco; a proceeding naturally enough objected to by the Commander of King Louis's forces, then at Antibes: a M. Cleerine, who takes the line, as one might expect him to do, that England and France being then at *peace*, the act was a most unusual one. But Matthews is ready with his reply, that though what M. Cleerine states is perfectly true, the acts of the French Government are not in harmony with that position—indeed, are most opposed to it; and instances, amongst other facts of a suspicious nature, that at that moment there is lying at Antibes a Spanish Army of 20,000 men, with a Prince of Spain, Don Philip, at their head, "part of which army was transported in French vessels, as also the necessaries for its support." In spite of which, and a good deal more all bearing on the same point, the English Admiral, with great fairness, offers "to release the said troops if it can be proved that they are not in the pay of the King of Spain but *bonâ fide* those of the King of France." I have not space to

give any extracts from the lengthy correspondence which this capture brought about, but it ended by the release of the troops, some days later, on their giving their *parole* to return to Antibes; and it would hardly have been worth noticing here, except as another illustration of the peculiar relations existing at that time between the two countries. This indeed is brought out very strikingly by another incident which was actually taking place, whilst the Admiral and the Commandant were engaged in settling the question just referred to, and the latter expressing his horror that such a breach of neutrality should have occurred! It was the news of the safe arrival in Toulon of thirty French and Catalan vessels (not very creditable this to the English blockading squadron!) "with cannon, powder, ball, &c., and barley and straw for the Spanish army at Antibes; and also that twelve cannon had been landed at Marseilles and would be *sent by land* to the same destination." —(*Dispatch to the Duke of Newcastle.*)

From the same dispatch we also gain a good deal of information as to the actual state of affairs on the coast and the situation and numbers of the opposing forces. The Spaniards, as we have seen, were at Antibes, no less than 20,000 strong, and endeavouring, by the collection of stores at that place, and all along the coast, to complete their arrangements for a move into Liguria. The French were garrisoning Monaco, with the idea, no doubt, of covering the Spanish advance immediately it commenced; for Nice was still held by the Sardinian troops and also Villa Franca, where Admiral Matthews was at anchor with some of his ships. This last place, with its defences in decay and an inadequate garrison, was in daily expectation of an attack from the Spanish advanced guard. Indeed, so grave

was the state of affairs from these two causes, that the Sardinian commander begged for English marines to assist him in the expected attack; and Matthews, fully impressed with the danger of such an important post falling into the enemy's hands, not only supplied him with twelve small guns, but undertook to land 200 marines from the fleet to assist in working them.

The admiral refers especially to the importance of strengthening the Castle of Montalban, which covered his anchorage, and which "if taken," he adds, "would compel me to quit the harbour and prove of very bad consequence." But he evidently has but a poor opinion either of the sincerity or energy of his Sardinian ally, for he concludes a letter to the Secretary of the Admiralty by saying: "On the whole, I do not find the Governor has any inclination to secure the harbour, for which reason, the moment the Spaniards begin their march from Antibes, I shall *get under sail to prevent His Majesty's flag being affronted* without any Probability of my taking Revenge!" An example of the gallant (?) admiral's *discretion*, which unfortunately, a few years later, was to bring him to grief and dismissal from His Majesty's service. We can hardly imagine a Nelson or Collingwood expressing their intention of *getting under weigh and retiring* the moment the enemy appeared in sight. With the same letter, he encloses a list of ships under his command; from which we gather that in addition to his own flagship, the *Namur*, which he brought out from England, and including galleys and fireships, he had between thirty and forty vessels; whilst from another document we learn that the Spanish and French fleets, either ready or fitting for sea in Toulon harbour, amounted to thirty-two vessels, but none were

fitted with less than 50 guns, and the majority were larger.

However, Matthews, on paper at least, was not going to let the Spaniards have an uninterrupted march into Sardinian territory; and turns his attention seriously to endeavour to stop them, by "the erection of works in the passes behind Villa Franca, *especially* at *Turbia*." And his energetic remonstrances appear at last to have had the effect of compelling the Sardinian authorities to take steps towards erecting fortifications better fitted to oppose the Spanish advance, with some prospect of success, than those hitherto existing; for we find the admiral, who seems never so happy as when writing florid accounts of his proceedings to the Duke of Newcastle, informing his Grace, on July 25, that he had left four detachments of soldiers, who had been put on board the squadron as marines, at Villa Franca and made all the necessary dispositions for supplythe batteries at Montalban, for defending the passes to Villa Franca, *and the important post* of *La Turbia*, "the whole being under the command of Captain Vincent of the *Royal Oak*."

Additional orders were given, that *all* Marines were to be landed in case of necessity, and that gunners were to be sent from the fleet to manage the sights of the guns already landed and placed in position "on some batteries which I had prevailed with the Governor-General at Nice to be erected," (not very cordial co-operation this) "and with them ammunition, &c." And we discover immediately that these preparations were not made an hour too soon, for on the very same day the Spanish General at Antibes, the Count of Clunes, sent a formal notice to the Sardinian Commander at Villa Franca, informing him that he had

received orders to march into Lombardy, and asking for "a pass through the territories of the King of Sardinia," and offering "to pay for all provisions and storage in ready money." In fact, nothing could be more courteous than the entire letter. However, we may infer that the Count received no reply to his cool demand or a decided negative, for the forward march of the Spanish forces was for the moment suspended. Just at this time Admiral Matthews writes another urgent letter to the Admiralty Board, calling attention to the frightful state of the ships now in the Mediterranean; and anything more disgraceful to the authorities at home, or unsatisfactory to the officers in command, is impossible to imagine. I wish I had space to transcribe it in full, for it is a picture as shameful as humiliating. Want of medical stores, and want of ordinary stores, and as a consequence the ships little better than fever dens; on board Vice-Admiral Lestock's ship, no less than eighty men on the sick list, and on others not far short of a third of their crew in a similar state. The ships foul and dirty, from the length of time they had been cruising off the coast, some barely able to beat to windward, and no chance of sending them to Port Mahon to refit, owing to the absence of fresh vessels from England to replace them; the gear and running rigging (braces, &c.) so worn out, that to keep even a respectable squadron cruising off Toulon and Nice, the Admiral had to denude some of the most inefficient of the little they had, and leave them, incapable of moving, at anchor in one of the securest harbours on the coast!

But let us return to the preparations at Turbia.

Those who have driven along the Riviera by *Vetturino*, and remember the wonderful curves and twists of the

Cornice Road when it leaves Nice and winds upwards to Turbia, can well understand what a strong position that village might be made, as a defence to the country behind; and how the passage of a considerable army might be barred by a few well-placed batteries, manned by highly organised troops, and led by an officer capable of infecting with enthusiasm those under his command. How much stronger then must have been this position, when instead of a broad and wide road, as now exists, there was nothing but a steep and rugged mule-path, which only enabled those journeying along it to ascend slowly, and with difficulty, and above all, in single file. No doubt at this date (the end of July), the Spanish authorities were making the greatest efforts to move their troops forward; for we read in another letter from Marseilles (intercepted probably in a vessel attempting to run the blockade), that a large number of mules had been collected for baggage purposes and were being sent down to the headquarters at Antibes. Indeed, as a preliminary, a portion of the army was moved forward to Digne and Barcelonnette, but for some cause or other, either from want of transport or uncertainty as to the support they would receive from the French, there they remained for some weeks.

The chief fear which seems to have haunted Matthews at this time, was that the united French and Spanish fleets would suddenly break out of Toulon, either evade or crush his blockading squadron, weakened by sickness and barely seaworthy, and transport the Spanish troops at Antibes, to Genoa, or some other point on the Ligurian coast (Savona perhaps), which would best suit the latter's purpose of striking at the Piedmontese army. And so in pitiful iteration, we see week after week, entreating letters from

the English admiral to the Duke of Newcastle, for more ships of all sorts. Ships he must have, if he is to carry out the programme that has been laid down for him in these waters. "I again acquaint your Grace, that the different services required cannot be performed with the ships under my command and most of them in a bad condition, weakly manned and sickly; and that keeping the sea both winter and summer must inevitably destroy both ships and men;" and much more to the same effect.

But the energetic step he had taken in landing guns and marines, and placing Turbia in a state of defence, appears to have frightened him; for a few days later, he withdrew them, on the plea that the "allied fleets" (i. e. of France and Spain) "were really moving"; much to the disgust, we may believe, of the Sardinian commander, who no doubt had felt increased hopefulness in delaying, if not checking the Spanish advance, when an addition of a couple of hundred English marines and a detachment of naval gunners had been added to his little force.

It was at this moment, when poor Matthews seemed hardly to know which to do first of the many things expected of him, that he received news of a great accumulation of stores of various kinds, straw and grain especially, by Spanish agents at Ventimiglia: preparations, in fact, for the forward march of that army into Liguria. The letter which gave the information was a peculiar one; it contained no signature, and was only addressed, "Dearest Uncle," and besides was written in a very guarded manner. I wish I could insert it here, but my limited space prevents my doing so. The writer began by stating that great quantities of straw, &c., were being collected in the town, undoubtedly for the Spanish cavalry, and evidently showing an intention

to cross the river at that point: that they were being purchased by a Genoese, a Signor Montebruno, and by a citizen of Ventimiglia, "from the country inland, and along the coast as far as San Remo," and further that these gentlemen "have also been taking note of any stores of straw belonging to private houses, in order to seize them by force, should the owners refuse to sell them, which, *unless they did it by order of the Republic*, would be utter ruin to them." At the time of writing, both Signor Montebruno and his colleague were away at San Remo for this purpose, and were expected to return to Ventimiglia "in five days, with all the straw and forage they can collect, some of which I understand" (and this evidently shocks him,) "has even been brought from the lands and castles of H.M. the King of Sardinia."

Apart from the information it contained, which later on was proved to be perfectly correct, the letter is interesting as corroborating the complaint which had been frequently made by the English admiral that the Genoese republic ("*unless they did it by the order of the Republic*,") and the inhabitants of this part of Liguria, far from being opposed to the Spaniards, gave them help and information whenever possible; and a couple of incidents which I shall presently quote even more markedly prove it.

The anonymous writer, after referring to the great risks he runs by giving this intelligence, which again shows the direction of popular sympathy, asks whether the straw, &c. might not be transported to *Bordiguera* (*sic*) or San Remo, and some given to a M. de Bruel, who acted both as Dutch and English consul, and was living at the latter town. On receipt of this letter the English Admiral writes at once (as I infer by the rest of the correspondence), to inform the Governor of Ventimiglia of what was going on,

and that such proceedings could not be allowed; and somewhat later—on the 12th of August—we may suppose, as that gentleman pleaded ignorance of the facts or his inability to interfere, sends an order to Capt. Martin, of the "Ipswich," who was in command of a division of the blockading fleet, "to make arrangements to land and destroy all such collections of grain, straw, fodder, &c., which it could be shown were belonging to the Spaniards or their agents in that town."

It is difficult to understand, at this distance of time and with nothing but official documents to fall back upon, why, not only the Genoese Republic, but the inhabitants of the Ligurian coast towns were partisans, more or less markedly, of the French and Spaniards, and opposed to their Italian fellow countrymen and their English allies. Yet such was evidently the case; and the few facts which are incidentally mentioned having reference to the feelings and behaviour of those residing in towns like Ventimiglia and San Remo, or even in villages like Bordighera, all point unmistakably in the same direction. One would have thought that the townsfolk of Ventimiglia would have been singularly indifferent to the success of any one of the four belligerents, for they at least had suffered at the hands of each; and their town, during the past three hundred years, had been taken and sacked by the French, Spaniards, Sardinians and Genoese in turn. Yet now these four, or three at least, were divided into two opposite camps, the inhabitants of that unfortunate town were undoubtedly in favour of the advancing Spaniards, aliens as they were and speaking a strange tongue, and hostile to the Sardinian and Piedmontese troops, who were almost their kinsfolk. Two incidents I may cite as illustrating

this, both occurring within the next week or so. They are mentioned in a letter addressed to Admiral Matthews by the commander of a frigate cruising off this part of the coast, who states that he is "sending as a prisoner, an English-speaking barber from San Remo, who has brought news to the English authorities of the continued accumulation of straw, corn, &c., at Ventimiglia by the Spaniards;" from which we can only infer that this individual, anxious to assist the English (perhaps having lived in England, as he spoke that language), preferred the nominal position of a prisoner in their hands to returning to San Remo, where the knowledge that he had given this information would probably be dangerous to him. Whilst in conclusion, Captain Goodlake (the officer in question), has also to report, "*that the people of Bordighera have quite recently warned a large Spanish rowboat*"—no doubt, an armed galley—"*and so saved her from capture by the English blockading squadron.*" So we see that even the fishermen of the little village which has so special an interest for us appear to have held decided views in favour of the strangers who were now about to invade their territory.

It may therefore have been the case, that the English Admiral, finding how general was this feeling along the coast, and that no aid but rather opposition was to be expected from the inhabitants, determined to make a demonstration, for the double purpose of showing that the English were not to be despised, and also to overawe those whose partisanship for the Spaniards was daily more openly displayed. For we find that a formal letter was sent to the Governor of Ventimiglia,* ordering him at

* I infer that there must have been some previous communication, as the letter ordering Captain Martin to make arrangements for landing is dated August 12th, and *this* to the Governor on the 18th of the same month!

once to destroy all stores of straw and grain, and threatening that if it was not done, the admiral would be compelled to land and do it himself!

Previous to this, however, not having gunboats of a light draft of water—a class of vessel poor Matthews has been vainly urging the English Admiralty to send out to him as necessary for an effective blockade of the shallower portions of the coast—the admiral determines to buy one of the large armed galleys, which appear even then to have been common throughout the Mediterranean. So first of all he tries to purchase from the Genoese Republic, but is courteously but decidedly refused; which causes him to write a long and angry dispatch to the Duke of Newcastle, complaining of the great favour shown by that Republic to Spain, and its hostile attitude to himself and those under him. Then he appears to have tried at the various important towns along the coast, and finally obtains what he is seeking from a Count Ricardo of Oneglia, who sells him a "row-boat" as it is called, for the sum of 3334 livres or about 185*l*. She was no doubt a large galley, similar, we may believe, to that Spanish one which had been saved from capture by the timely warning of the Bordighera fisher-folk. Her dimensions were: length 56 feet, breadth 11 feet; and she was propelled by 28 large oars, "and manned"—so continues the dispatch announcing the particulars—"by forty-nine subjects of the King of Sardinia." Perhaps the English Admiral had this vessel in his mind when he decided to land men from the fleet and destroy the magazines of straw, &c. for she appears to have been delivered only a few days before his ultimatum to the Governor. And as Ventimiglia was a strongly fortified town, he might have hesitated to employ

the small boats of the squadron to disembark his sailors and marines; as in the event of the garrison opening fire there would be nothing but the muskets of the latter with which to reply to them. The fleet too, owing to the shallowness of the water, would not probably be able to cover the boats' advance, beyond a certain distance.

I have not been able to discover if any reply was made to Admiral Matthews' ultimatum; perhaps the Governor treated it with silent contempt; perhaps his position was a difficult one, and he thought silence the safest policy; or his sympathies, like those of his fellow townsmen, were in favour of the Spaniards. But if any reply was made, it was unsatisfactory: for on the 31st of August, nearly a fortnight later, the English blockading squadron, under the command of Captain Martin, in the "Ipswich," appeared off the old fortress, which had had so many and varied experiences, and shortly after came to anchor. The men appointed, "with an officer from each ship, under command of Captain de L'Angle" (it is curious, such an unmistakably French name occurring at this juncture), were embarked on board the new galley, which, judging from the models in the naval museum at the Louvre, would carry a large carronade on her forecastle, or possibly two. The view at this moment must have been as striking as it was beautiful. The frigates and line-of-battle ships swinging at anchor, probably in two lines, with their lofty spars and white sails, the latter still hanging from the yards, whilst below rows of black-muzzled guns peered through the open ports, the long galley meantime moving swiftly toward the mouth of the river, with its pointed prow and graceful lateen rig; and its tier of brightly-painted oars at which laboured the hardy Sardinian crew.

In the after part, or perhaps mingled amongst the rowers, the marines and blue-jackets, and the little knot of officers grouped together on the raised poop, which as a rule these vessels were provided with. In front the old town and fortress, "compassed by the everlasting hills," and above and below the deep blue of a Mediterranean sky and sea: a scene which all those who have visited the Riviera, and this spot in particular, will have no difficulty in picturing.

However, to the surprise, no doubt, of all on board,—if we remember the hostile feeling of the inhabitants,—no attempt to open fire was made on the advancing galley; neither did the garrison oppose their landing, but the Governor—awed, we may believe, by the sight of the squadron almost within gunshot—actually sent down some officers to receive them and to point out where the magazines were situated. Four, containing barley, it appears, were entirely destroyed, and their contents flung into the sea, and then Captain L'Angle and the English officers, under the same guidance, "visited every part of the town, and had all private magazines opened for their inspection wherever corn, straw, or any sort of grain was stored."

It is not stated that "the inspection concluded, the whole party returned to the Governor's to lunch, and that the healths of His Majesty King George and the Doge of Genoa were proposed and drunk with enthusiasm." But, considering the courtesy shown throughout by the latter's representative, and we may believe reciprocated by the British officers, it would certainly have been a fitting conclusion to so unique a proceeding. The officers and men then re-embarked (one cannot help wondering, by the bye, at what point of the old town the landing and

embarkation took place), the ponderous oars of the galley once more moved, and they are before long on board their own vessels; and the latter, making sail, resume once more the dreary routine of a blockading squadron. The next morning Captain Martin writes a brief dispatch to Admiral Matthews, headed, "H.M. Frigate 'Ipswich,' in the Roads of Araiche, 1st September, 1742;" which the Admiral weaves into one of his long and melancholy epistles to my Lords, as an instance of the vigour and energy with which he is prosecuting hostilities.

Such then are the details of this very unromantic and harmless operation, where no life was lost, where no gun even was fired, but which *local tradition*, with the marvellous magnifying propensities peculiar to it all over the world, now refers to as a *bombardment and a sack*. Well indeed would it be for humanity, if every sack and every siege could be proved to rest on as slender a basis, to have been as bloodless, and to have been attended with as little suffering to all taking part in it, as the bombardment and capture of Ventimiglia by Admiral Matthews in 1742.

Two other facts, though not actually coming under the heading of this chapter, I cannot help just mentioning, as being of interest to English and Scotch readers. The first is, that it is almost certain that Tobias Smollett was an assistant-surgeon on board this identical squadron; for Carlyle speaks of him as being, from the evidence of his own books, under the same Captain Martin (then Commodore), when the latter appeared off Naples with his celebrated ultimatum a little later on; whilst there is no doubt that it was during his service in these parts, that he was finding materials for those wonderful sketches of naval life and its miseries which are to be found in his novels.

The other point I wished to notice is in reference to a very different individual, Charles Edward, the young Pretender, who about eighteen months later embarked in a small sailing craft at Genoa, under the name of Count di Spinelli; and having in some wonderful manner escaped the English blockading squadron, landed at Antibes in January 1744, from whence he hastened to Paris. This was prior to the attempted invasion of England from Dunkirk, where 15,000 French troops were collected under Marshal de Saxe; an invasion which was only prevented (the troops and fleet *having actually started*) by a very violent storm, which dispersed the fleet of transports, and wrecked many of the vessels of which it was composed.

CHAPTER XVIII.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF THE HISTORY OF LIGURIA.

In this table the events which especially relate to the History of Bordighera are indicated by Norman type = **Norman.**

A certain number of noteworthy events, but relating to other countries, are indicated in small capitals = SMALL CAPITALS, in order to aid the reader in connecting the history of Liguria with that of the rest of Europe.

The Counts and Dukes of Savoy and Kings of Sardinia are indicated by capitals = CAPITALS.

B.C.

536 **Foundation of Nice, according to some by a Phocaean emigration from Corsica.**
534 TARQUIN THE PROUD, king of Rome.

B.C.

520 RETURN of the JEWS to JERUSALEM under ESDRAS.
480 XERXES INVADES GREECE.
350 Foundation of Nice, according to other authorities by the Phocaeans from Marseilles.
218 SECOND PUNIC WAR.
210 Scipio Africanus, on his way to Spain, puts into *Portus Herculis*, i. e. Monaco or Villa Franca.
204 Genoa sacked by the Carthaginians.
„ Mago establishes his head-quarters at Savo (Savona).
„ Albingaunum (Albenga) attacked by the Carthaginians.
202 Genoa rebuilt by the Romans.
200 War waged by the Romans against the Ligurian tribes.
„ Appius Claudius, Consul, builds the *Castel d'Appio* at Ventimiglia.
163 Submission of the Ligurians.
146 CARTHAGE TAKEN by the ROMANS.
118 **Annexation of Liguria as a Roman Province.**
„ **Probable Opening of the Aurelian Way.**
102 Victory of Carbo at Aix (Provence) over the Cimbres and Teutons.
55 JULIUS CÆSAR invades BRITAIN.
49 Foundation of Fréjus.
31 BATTLE of ACTIUM (September 2).
27 AUGUSTUS receives the homage of the SENATE and the title of EMPEROR.
„ The Monument of Turbia is supposed to have been erected at this period.
„ The town of *Cemenelium* increases greatly under the
A.D. patronage of Augustus.
54 Nero grants the *Jus Latium* to the inhabitants of the Ligurian Provinces.
79 DESTRUCTION of POMPEII by MOUNT VESUVIUS.
400 ALARIC INVADES ITALY.
405 Nice destroyed by the Goths.
410 Probable foundation of the Abbey of Lérins by St. Honorat.
„ SACK of ROME by ALARIC.
411 **Arrival of St. Ampelio at the Cape of Bordighera.**

A.D.

428 **Death of St. Ampelio in the Hermitage on the Cape.**
448 The Huns under Attila invade Italy.
455 Taking of Rome by the Vandals.
481 Clovis, King of France.
568 Conquest of Italy by the Lombards under Alboin.
574 Cimiez (*Cemenelium*) destroyed by the Lombards.
578 Nice grows in importance, owing to the immigration of the inhabitants of Cimiez.
584 Nice conquered by Chilbert, King of France.
617 Nice joins the *Genoese league* against the Barbarians.
618 Epidemic of leprosy at Nice.
622 Era of the Hegira.
639 Nice throws off the yoke of France, and puts herself under the protection of Genoa.
641 Destruction of Matuta (San Remo) by the Lombards under Rotharis.
670 Arrival of Romulus at Matuta.
„ Destruction of Genoa by the Lombards.
„ The Saracens commence to scour the Mediterranean.
730 Destruction of the Abbey of Lérins by the Saracens.
741 Nice accepts peaceably French authority (annexation to France).
795 Genoa taken by Charlemagne, who installs Count Ademar as Governor.
800 Coronation of Charlemagne by Pope Leo III.
838 San Romulus (San Remo) taken and sacked by the Saracens.
872 Alfred the Great, King of England.
879 Nice transferred to the rule of the Counts of Arles.
931 Genoa ineffectually besieged by the Saracens.
934 Genoa and San Romulus taken and sacked by the Saracens.
936 Genoa again sacked by the same.
954 **Guy, Count of Ventimiglia,** commencing a war against the Saracens, and desiring to secure his entry to Paradise, bequeaths the **Fief of Seborga** to the Abbey of Lérins (doubtful fact).

A.D.

958 Bérenger II., King of Italy and Arles, allows Genoa the privilege of self-government.
972 William, Count of Provence, drives the Saracens from these coasts.
1002 Henry II., Emperor.
1011 Independent municipalities begin to spring up in Provence, owing to the indifference of the Counts of Arles.
1022 Reconstruction of the Abbey of Lérins by St. Odilon, Abbé of Cluny.
1027 HUMBERT I. (*White Hands*), first Count of Savoy.
1032 Count Conrad of Ventimiglia cedes his rights over San Romulus to the Bishopric of Genoa.
1041 Presentation of the Monastery of St. Michael at Ventimiglia by Count Otho to the Abbey of Lérins.
1048 AMADEUS I., Count of Savoy.
1060 AMADEUS II., Count of Savoy.
1066 William the Conqueror, King of England.
1072 HUMBERT II. (*The Strong*), Count of Savoy.
1080 Construction of the Church of Monaco by the inhabitants of the village of Turbia.
1095 The First Crusade.
„ Great prosperity of Genoa, resulting from its becoming the point of departure for the Crusaders.
1103 AMADEUS III., Count of Savoy.
1115 Alliance between Nice and Pisa against Count Raymond-Bérenger III. of Provence.
1140 Ventimiglia besieged and taken by Genoa and her allies.
„ **The body of St. Ampelio removed to San Remo.**
1148 HUMBERT III. (*The Saint*), Count of Savoy.
1152 Frederick Barbarossa, Emperor.
1158 Genoa preserves her independence by payment of an indemnity to the Emperor.
1162 Frederick grants Monaco to Genoa, and authorises the Republic to occupy all the coast between Monaco and Porto Venere.
1167 Alphonso II. of Arragon succeeds Raymond-Bérenger III. of Provence.

A.D.

1176 Alphonso besieges Nice, which capitulates, but retains its liberties by the payment of a heavy indemnity.

1185 Civil war in Ventimiglia: sieges of Dolceacqua and St. Agnese.

1186 Siege of Ventimiglia by Count Otho and the Genoese.

1188 THOMAS, Count of Savoy.

1190 HENRY VI., Emperor of Germany.

1191 Henry grants Monaco definitely to Genoa, making the latter a fief of the empire.

1215 The Genoese take possession of Monaco.

,, Contest between the Grimaldi and the Spinola family for the possession of Monaco, which had become a robber stronghold.

,, Genoa having sought to subdue Nice, that town proclaims its independence.

1219 Revolt of Ventimiglia, which is later on besieged by Genoa, and captured in the year 1221.

1226 SAINT LOUIS, King of France.

1228 Nice taken by Raymond IV. of Provence.

1230 Raymond-Bérenger confirms the liberties of Nice, and commences the building of the Castle.

1232 Guelf league directed by Genoa against Frederick II.

1233 AMADEUS IV., Count of Savoy.

1238 Savona, Albenga, Porto Maurizio, and Ventimiglia revolt at the instigation of Frederick.

1246 Marriage of Charles of Anjou with Princess Beatrice of Savoy, and union of their dominions.

1251 Siege of Ventimiglia by Genoese, and rout of the Ventimiglians on the Cape of St. Ampelio.

1253 BONIFACE, Count of Savoy.

1258 Translation of the ashes of St. Ampelio from San Remo to the Church of St. Stephen at Genoa.

1263 PIERRE (surnamed the "*Little Charlemagne*"), Count of Savoy.

1266 Charles of Anjou cedes Ventimiglia to Genoa.

1268 PHILIP, Count of Savoy.

1285 AMADEUS V. (surnamed "*The Great*"), Count of Savoy.

A.D.

1297 Sale of San Remo by the Archbishop of Genoa to Hubert D'Oria and George De Mari.

1306 Opizzino Spinola comes into power at Genoa.

1308 HENRY VII., Emperor of Germany.

1310 Fall of Opizzino Spinola, followed by his imprisonment in the Castle of Monaco.

1311 Visit of Henry VII. to Genoa, to whom is granted the supreme authority for twenty years.

1323 EDWARD, surnamed the "*Liberal*," Count of Savoy.

1329 AIMON, surnamed the "*Peaceful*," Count of Savoy.

1330 San Remo taken by Antonio D'Oria.

1338 Charles Grimaldi takes possession of Monaco.

1343 AMADEUS VI., surnamed the "*Green Count*," Count of Savoy.

1348 Great Plague at Ventimiglia.

1350 Sale of San Remo to Genoa by Antonio D'Oria.

1383 AMADEUS VII., surnamed the "*Red Count*," Count of Savoy.

1388 Nice places herself under the protection of Amadeus.

,, Unsuccessful siege of Ventimiglia by Amadeus.

1391 AMADEUS VIII., Duke of Savoy.

1402 Nice granted absolutely to Amadeus by Louis III. of Anjou.

1409 Genoa, under the protectorate of France, revolts against Charles VI. Amadeus joins with the latter, offering the "County" of Ventimiglia in exchange.

,, Treaty of peace. Charles of Anjou renounces his pretensions to Nice.

1410 Taking of Ventimiglia, after being besieged by the Genoese and defended by the French.

,, Serious outbreak of plague in Liguria.

1436 Birth of Christopher Columbus at Cogoleto.

1440 LOUIS, Count of Savoy.

1453 CONSTANTINOPLE taken by the TURKS: end of the EASTERN EMPIRE.

1461 Louis XI. of France.

1465 AMADEUS IX., Duke of Savoy.

A.D.

1466 Monaco, held by Prince Lambert of Grimaldi, is besieged by Sforza, Duke of Milan.
1468 The plague again commits great ravages.
1470 **Foundation of Bordighera.**
1477 PHILIBERT I., surnamed the "*Hunter*," Duke of Savoy.
1482 CHARLES I., surnamed the "*Warrior*," Duke of Savoy.
1483 CHARLES VIII., King of France.
1489 CHARLES II., Duke of Savoy.
1492 DISCOVERY of AMERICA.
1496 PHILIP II., Duke of Savoy.
1497 PHILIBERT II., Duke of Savoy, surnamed *The Beautiful*.
1499 Renewed outbreak of plague, which ravages Liguria.
1500 The Knights of St. John, about this time, establish themselves at Ospedaletti.
1504 CHARLES III., surnamed *The Good*, Duke of Savoy.
1509 HENRY VIII. of ENGLAND.
1513 Leo X. elected to the Papacy.
1514 Cession of Ventimiglia to the *Banco di San Giorgio*.
1515 FRANCIS I., King of France.
1519 CHARLES V., Emperor of Spain and Germany.
1525 Sack of Ventimiglia by the troops of the Constable de Bourbon.
1527 The Knights of St. John establish themselves at Nice and Villafranca, by treaty with Charles, Duke of Savoy, in order to exterminate the pirates.
1528 Revolution at Genoa headed by Andrea Doria.
1530 Charles V. cedes the Island of Malta to the Knights, who retire from Villafranca.
1533 EMMANUEL PHILIBERT, Duke of Savoy.
1536 Capture of Lérins Islands by Andrea Doria.
1538 TREATY of NICE between CHARLES V. and FRANCIS I.
1543 Nice besieged by the Turks, allied with Francis I., under Hariadan Barbarossa and the Duc d'Enghien. Episode of Catharine Ségurane. Nice capitulates.
1550 Further outbreaks of the Plague.
1558 ELIZABETH, Queen of England.
1559 TREATY of CATEAU-CAMBRÉSIS.

A.D.

1564 Great Earthquake in Liguria.
1576 Sale of the principality of Oneglia by Emmanuel-Philibert of Savoy to the D'Oria family.
1580 CHARLES EMMANUEL, surnamed *The Great*, Duke of Savoy.
„ The Plague renews its ravages.
1581 Sale of the County of Tenda by Emmanuel-Philibert to the Lascari family.
1585 SIXTUS V. elected Pope.
1586 **Sixtus** grants to the **Bresca family of San Remo the privilege of furnishing Palms to Rome.**
1589 HENRY IV., King of France.
1600 Nice is captured by the Provençaux under Guise.
„ Commencement of **the Oratory of Saint Bartholomew** at Bordighera.
1617 The Bishop (Spinola) of Ventimiglia lays **the first stone of the Parish Church** at **Bordighera.**
1625 CHARLES I. of England.
„ Ventimiglia, invested by Prince Victor of Savoy, capitulates in April, but returns to the jurisdiction of Genoa in September.
1626 Charles Emmanuel grants the privilege of a free Port to Nice.
1635 VICTOR AMADEUS, Duke of Savoy.
„ The Lérins Islands captured by the Spaniards.
1637 FRANCIS HYACINTH, Duke of Savoy.
1638 CHARLES EMMANUEL II., Duke of Savoy.
1641 Monaco accepts the Protectorate of France, the treaty being signed by Louis XIII. on one side, and the Principality on the other.
1643 LOUIS XIV., King of France.
1660 CHARLES II., King of England.
1662 Genoa repurchases Ventimiglia from the Bank of San Giorgio.
1672 Nice declares war against Genoa, owing to the construction by the latter power of a road from Piedmont to Oneglia.

A.D.

1675 VICTOR AMADEUS II., Duke of Savoy.

1683 February 11. **Emancipation of the Eight Communes,** which formed the *Villæ Vintimilienses.*

1686 April 30. **The Community of the Eight Towns** signs its act of federation.

„ Suppression of the **Mint** of **Seborga** by Louis XIV.

1691 Siege of Nice by the French under Catinat: explosion of magazine and taking of the town.

1696 Treaty of Turin. Nice returns to the Throne of Savoy

1697 **Sale of Seborga** by the Abbey of Lérins to Victor Amadeus of Savoy.

1705 Siege of Nice by the French under la Feuillade.

1706 Destruction of the Castle of Nice by the Duke of Berwick.

1713 Nice evacuated by the Provençaux under the Treaty of Utrecht.

1714 GEORGE I., King of England.

1715 LOUIS XV., King of France.

1720 Victor Amadeus II. exchanges Sicily for Sardinia, and takes the title of King of Sardinia.

„ Great outbreak of the Plague in Marseilles and in Provence, but not crossing the Var.

1730 CHARLES EMMANUEL III., King of Sardinia.

1742 Blockade of the Ligurian coast by the English Fleet, and great stores of grain destroyed by them at Ventimiglia.

„ Nice captured by the French.

„ Monaco occupied by the Spaniards.

1744 Capture of Villa Franca by French and Spaniards, and retreat of Charles Emmanuel.

„ Ventimiglia and Porto Maurizio occupied by the French.

„ December 25. Peace of Dresden.

1745 The same towns occupied by the Spaniards.

1746 Capture of Genoa by the Troops of the Queen of Hungary.

„ Revolt of Genoa against the Austrians, and expulsion of the latter.

„ The Spaniards evacuate Nice.

A.D.

1747 And also Ventimiglia.

1748 PEACE of AIX-LA-CHAPELLE.

„ Nice restored to the Kingdom of Sardinia.

1750 **Conversion** of the **Tower** (*avisium*) of **Bordighera** into a **Belfry.**

„ **Removal** of the **Drawbridges** at **Bordighera.**

1773 VICTOR AMADEUS III., King of Sardinia.

1774 LOUIS XVI., King of France.

1776 DECLARATION of the INDEPENDENCE of the UNITED STATES of AMERICA.

1780 **Opening of the Porta della Maddalena at Bordighera.**

1783 **Construction** of the **Fountain and Aqueduct at Bordighera.**

1792 September 21. ABOLITION of the MONARCHY in FRANCE.

„ September 30. Occupation of Nice by the French.

1793 February 15. Occupation of Ventimiglia, and successively the whole of Western Liguria, by the French.

„ Annexation of the Principality of Monaco to the French Republic.

1796 March 15. Annexation of the "County" of Nice to the French Republic.

„ CHARLES EMMANUEL IV., King of Sardinia.

1797 Revolution at Genoa. Proclamation of the Ligurian Republic.

„ May. Siege of Genoa by the English Fleet, and occupation of Ventimiglia by the Austrians.

„ June 14. Battle of Marengo. Evacuation of Liguria by the Austrians.

1802 VICTOR EMMANUEL I., King of Sardinia.

1804 May 20. PROCLAMATION of the FIRST EMPIRE.

„ Commencement of the Cornice Road between Nice and Mentone.

1805 December 2. BATTLE OF AUSTERLITZ.

„ December 26. Treaty of Presbourg. Annexation of Liguria to the French Empire.

A.D.

1810 Work begun on the road between Mentone and Genoa.
1814 April 13. ABDICATION of NAPOLEON at FONTAINEBLEAU.
„ May 30. Treaty of Paris. Incorporation of Liguria with the Kingdom of Sardinia.
1817 Treaty of protection between the Principality of Monaco and the Sardinian Government.
1821 March 16. CHARLES FELIX, King of Sardinia.
1823 **Opening of the Cornice Road through the Canton of Bordighera.**
1828 Completion of the Cornice Road.
1830 LOUIS PHILIPPE, King of the French.
1831 CHARLES ALBERT, King of Sardinia.
1832 Earthquake in Liguria.
1837 VICTORIA, Queen of England.
1846 PIUS IX., Pope.
1848 February. Agitation in Italy.
„ February 24. REVOLUTION in PARIS.
„ March 4. Charles Albert grants the Constitution of the Sardinian States.
„ March 21. Declaration of Independence by Mentone and Roquebrune.
„ March 23. Charles Albert declares War against Austria.
„ May 29. Capture of Peschiera by Charles Albert.
„ July 25. Defeat of Custoza.
„ August 9. Armistice of Salasco.
1849 March 12. Rupture of the Armistice.
„ March 23. Great defeat at Novara, and abdication of Charles Albert.
„ March 24. VICTOR EMMANUEL II., King of Sardinia.
„ June 30. Entry of the French into Rome.
1859 April 26. War between France and Piedmont against Austria.
„ June 24. Battle of Solferino.
„ July 12. Peace of Villa Franca.
1860 June 12. Annexation of the "County" of Nice and Savoy to France.

A.D.

1861 March 15. Proclamation of the Kingdom of Italy.
1866 January 1. Publication of the Italian Civil Code.
1867 **Opening of the Carriage-road across the Cape at Bordighera.**
1870 September 4. FALL of NAPOLEON III. Proclamation of the Republic at Paris.
„ September 20. Taking of Rome by the Italians.
1873 **Opening of the Railway between Genoa and Ventimiglia.**
1878 January 9. Death of Victor Emmanuel II.
„ HUMBERT I., King of Italy.

PART III.

THE CLIMATE OF BORDIGHERA SCIENTIFICALLY CONSIDERED.

CHAPTER I.

"NORTH AND SOUTH."

Importance of a scientific study of climates—The sub-tropical zone of Europe—Principal meteorological differences between the Northern and Southern portions of the Continent—System to be followed in the comparison of climate.

THE study of climate has only within the last few years become a science. At the commencement of the century, invalids from the north of Europe, anxious to escape the frosts and fogs of their own country, had already begun to migrate south and to winter indifferently anywhere, when once they had entered the region of the orange and olive: a region to which certain meteorologists have given the name of the *sub-tropical zone of Europe.**

But in the present day physicians are not content with merely ordering their patients to the south, but go so far

* The northern limit of this zone touches our continent at the Pyrenees, crosses France at the latitude of the Department of the Drôme, turns to the south as it meets the Alps, follows the crest of those mountains and the Apennines as far as the latitude of Rome, from whence it stretches away to the Levant; its climate is characterised by dry winters and summers, the rain falling almost entirely in the intermediate seasons.

as to specify not only the *town*, but even that quarter of it which is most suited to different maladies.

This elaborate investigation into the character of the climates of the Rivieran wintering-places has in fact become an important branch of modern medicine, but as a science it is still in its infancy, and its present position far from justifying the conclusions, often from very incomplete data, which its professors place before us. So without disputing the utility of medical climatology, it is impossible not to regret the subtile distinctions raised between the climates of neighbouring localities and the rash judgments as to their effects which one meets with in certain works of this class.

Moreover, the authors rarely agree with each other. Thus, to speak only of the place to which I am especially referring, we read in one of these works that "the climate of Bordighera is *dry, bracing*, and *stimulating*;" whilst from another author we learn that it is "*moist and enervating.*"

These absurd contradictions can only be explained by the incomplete and insufficient data and observations, upon which authors too frequently found their conclusions. The exaggerated praise of zealous partisans, although made no doubt in good faith, is perhaps more injurious to the interests of the locality they wish to serve than they have any idea of. There is nothing indeed so damaging to the progress of any place desirous of attracting a foreign colony, as exaggeration of its merits and the beneficial effects of its climate; the result is only to disgust those who have been tempted to visit it, and to convince its injudicious supporters that here, as elsewhere, falsehood ever harms most those who make use of it.

The following figures will give an idea of the radical

difference which exists between the climates of the north and south of Europe. The mean temperature of our region during the six winter months is (Nice) * 51° 2′ Fahr., whilst that of London is 43° Fahr., the difference being more than 9° 1′ Fahr.

The mean temperature of the English Channel is 49° Fahr.; that of the Mediterranean on our coast 57° Fahr, a difference of 8° Fahr.

The mean of the rainfall for the six months at Nice is 20 inches; in the north of Europe from 11 to 12 inches.

From this we see that there is a greater rainfall in these parts than in the north, but on the other hand the number of *wet days* is less; the mean at Nice being only 36, but in Northern Europe it is from 90 to 100.

But to appreciate the meteorological character and the medical effects of any one of these places, in so far as its climate differs from those of its neighbours, it is necessary to have before us the observations of a considerable number of years and to examine the results obtained by the resident physicians, in their treatment of the principal forms of illness, during many winter seasons. But we are far off as yet, as regards meteorology, at least in the greater number of our winter stations, from possessing the necessary elements to enable us to apply the test with any satisfactory result. And this applies to Bordighera especially, for the daily variations of the thermometer have only been registered there for the last *seven* years, neither did a rain-gauge exist prior to January 1st, 1879.

It is therefore impossible at present to offer to the

* I have used the figures of Nice for the general comparison of the southern climate with that of the north, as it is the only place on the coast where the means have been based on a very long series of observations.

public complete and authentic information as to the especial features which distinguish the climate of this town. All that we can do is to state the facts which have been observed, and to indicate to a certain extent, the conclusions to which these facts would seem to lead.

And it is to this point I have endeavoured to confine myself in the following pages.

CHAPTER II.

TEMPERATURE.

Observations at Bordighera since 1876—Comparison with Nice, Cannes, and Mentone—Result justified by the configuration of the coast—Summer temperature—Effect of nocturnal radiation.

THE question then to which we have to give an answer is, "Is Bordighera warmer or colder in winter than its neighbours along the Riviera?"

The answer will be found, so far as it is possible to discover it, by comparing the following observations of the thermometer, made at that place, with those obtained at other towns.

Temperatures of the winter months at Bordighera. January, February, March, October, November, and December:

MAXIMA.

Years.	Fahr.
1876	80°
1877	75°
1878	84°
1879	75°
1880	78°
1881	80°
1882	78°

MINIMA.

Years.	Fahr.
1876	36°
1877	40°
1878	39°
1879	36°
1880	35°
1881	35°
1882	30°

MEANS.

Years.	Fahr.
1876	52°
1877	51°
1878	51°
1879	51°
1880	53°
1881	54°
1882	52°
General mean	52°

But if we compare these means with a table of the winter temperatures of Cannes, Nice, and Mentone, given by Dr. Sparks in his work on 'The Riviera,' we find as a result that the mean temperature of the winter season at Bordighera is practically identical with that of Nice, lower by nearly one degree Fahr. than that of Cannes, and by nearly one degree and three quarters Fahr. than that of Mentone, which is the highest of all. But on examining the details of the table, we discover a somewhat different result, viz. that Bordighera is warmer than her neighbours in mid-winter, but cooler in the spring and autumn. Practically, the highest means are, for

November, December	Mentone.
January, February	Bordighera.
March, April	Mentone.

On the other hand, the lowest means are:

November, December	Bordighera.
January, February	Nice.
March, April	Bordighera.

These results bring us to the conclusion that taking one thing with another, the climate of Bordighera does not differ sensibly, so far as its temperature is concerned, from those of the towns on the French coast, except in the fact that it is more equable: that is to say (but only in insignificant proportions, however), it is probably somewhat warmer in winter and cooler in summer.

The configuration of the coast also bears out this opinion. Islands, it is well known, have generally a more equable climate than the interior of continents; that is to say, the extreme temperatures of winter and summer differ less from the general mean of the year.

Now the projecting position of Bordighera, the unusual depth of the sea close in shore, and the complete shelter it receives from the mountains, constitute almost an insular situation compared with that of Nice, Cannes, and Mentone, which are placed in bays, where the sea is much shallower, and which, owing to their wide valleys, are exposed to the influence of strong inland winds, blowing direct from the snowy mountains.

The materials are not at hand to enable us to compare, with any satisfactory result, the summer temperatures of Bordighera with those of the neighbouring towns; but below are given those of our little town for the last seven years, from May to September:

MAXIMA.

Years.	Fahr.
1876	84°
1877	89°
1878	86°
1879	93°
1880	89°
1881	87°
1882	87°

MINIMA.

Years.	Fahr.
1876	48°
1877	44°
1878	50°
1879	41°
1880	48°
1881	53°
1882	48°

MEANS.

Years.	Fahr.
1876	67°
1877	69°
1878	71°
1879	68·5°
1880	68·5°
1881	68°
1882	68°
General mean	68·5°

I cannot leave this subject of temperature without saying a word as to the remarkable phenomena which are occasioned by radiation during the still nights of winter.

Not unfrequently I have been asked the following question:

"How do you explain the fact, that often on a day when your minimum has shown three, four, or even five degrees above freezing, any one going out early enough would find the hoar frost on the grass and ice on the little puddles and pools of water?"

I answer:

"The minima which I register are marked by a thermometer placed under the roof of a Belvedere about fifty feet from the ground, but open to the north and exposed to winds from every quarter. Now the temperatures which affect a thermometer under these circumstances are necessarily very different from those registered by one placed on the grass and under the influence of the nocturnal radiation; and it is the former, and not the latter, which it is necessary to observe to gain a true idea of the climate."

And this is the reason: a thermometer placed on the grass, and unprotected by any covering, such as a roof or the boughs of a tree, receives the full effects of the direct radiation between earth and sky, and the following phenomena take place. Hardly has the sun set, than the heat which its rays have thrown out in the atmosphere disperses itself in space. This sudden chill immediately causes the condensation of the watery vapours existing in the air, which fall to the earth's surface in the form of dew. During this process the temperature on the grass falls considerably, and in a few minutes it attains almost the minimum which will be marked during the whole of the night by the thermometer in the Belvedere.

But now that the first and chief fall of dew has taken place, the radiation from the heat which has penetrated the earth's surface during the past day begins to make itself felt, and the temperature, *still on the grass*, rises several degrees. This state of things lasts for some hours; but little by little the provision of heat existing below the surface becomes exhausted, and the temperature in consequence sinks once more. This decrease of temperature continues steadily until sunrise; that is, until the moment when the sun's rays, striking the atmosphere transversely, begin to spread heat through the air. The result of these

alternations being that the night gives us *two* minima temperatures: one early in the evening, about an hour after sunset; and a second, which is the true minimum of the night, in the early morning, about an hour before sunrise.

But these extreme temperatures, taken on the grass bathed in dew, have but little influence on human beings, and are therefore without interest to our winter visitors.

The sudden cold in the early morning, however, is but a passing and limited phenomenon. To take it into account in observations especially prepared to give a true idea of our climate, would be but to lead the reader into error; for this temperature is never experienced by those who enter their houses at ten or eleven at night, neither can it penetrate their windows and reach them in their apartment. Raise yourself ten or fifteen feet from the ground, or place yourself against the wall of a house, and this sudden chill will have no effect upon you; there the first minimum of the evening, of which I have already spoken, remains perceptibly the whole of the night. It is this minimum, then, which it is necessary for us to register when commencing our observations; the other may offer a certain amount of interest to the horticulturist and the florist, but only to them, and has no bearing whatever on the climate of a wintering place medically considered. However, this sudden fall of temperature, which, I may add, never takes place unless the weather is extremely fine, is not without its advantages: it is the forerunner and infallible sign of a warm and beautiful day.

The Meteorological Congress has laid down a rule that the position for a thermometer is under the shelter of a louvre-screened cage, about four feet from the ground.

But we must not forget that this rule has only been established for a purely scientific end, and has nothing whatever to do with giving an approximate idea of the climate of a place; and, for the reasons given above, I think my observations, from a practical point of view, more useful than those taken so near the ground. However, in order to conform to this rule, and place my observations for the future on exactly the same basis as those of the neighbouring towns, I intend shortly putting up a second thermometer in the position laid down by the congress.

Next to the radiation, the land wind, or wind blowing from the mountains, is the chief factor in the low night temperature. The irregular variations registered by thermometers placed in elevated situations are, without doubt, due to its presence, its temperature, or its absence. Blowing in a straight line from the mountains, it brings with it the temperature which prevails there; and this fact, more than any other, explains the capricious variableness which our winters frequently present from one year to another, and also between one place and another.

The Alps act as a complete barrier between our meteorological zone and that which lies immediately to the north; consequently, we are but very slightly influenced by the state of the weather in the plains of Northern Italy. But we *are* affected, at night, by the land wind, blowing southwards from the mountains. For the snow falls very irregularly each winter along the coast. One season, perhaps there may be enormous masses to the north of Mentone, and little on the mountains behind Bordighera, or *vice versâ*, and the winds blowing from thence southwards will be more or less cold in consequence.

CHAPTER III.

RAINFALL.

Difference of rainfall in the same district—Conclusion suggested by the position of Bordighera—Statistics of rainfall—Comparisons with other towns—Influence of the various winds on rainfall—Character of rains—The Barometer.

THE quantity of rain which falls during the year on the surface of the globe varies according to latitude; its maximum is on the equator, and it decreases towards the pole; but the number of rainy days is in an inverse proportion.

But this rule is subject to important exceptions.

The nature and physical configuration of the district, its elevation above the level of the sea, and the nature of the prevailing winds, are causes which have an important and modifying effect on the question of rainfall. Thus, in the tropical zone, we find every possible variation in the amount of rain received during the year, from zero on the western face of the Cordilleras, up to a total of 48 feet in certain portions of Hindostan.

There is therefore nothing astonishing that our own district, varied in character as it is, should offer some remarkable differences as regards its annual rainfall, even indeed between those places which are closely adjacent to each other.

The position of Bordighera, however, is of a nature to lead us to infer that it would have a somewhat smaller rainfall than other places on the coast.

A headland projecting into the sea, not only far beyond the general line of the coast, but more than any other

cape in Liguria, with a massive mountain range rising northwards, unpierced by any broad valley, ought necessarily to offer a situation far more sheltered from cold and frequent rains than those towns situated at the mouths of deep valleys like Nice and Mentone.

This hypothesis is probably true, so far at least as regards those rains brought by the winds from the interior, but it is not possible at present to say anything definite on this point. Observations as to rainfall having only been made at Bordighera since January 1, 1879, it is difficult to give any trustworthy mean.

Below I append a summary of these observations:

Years.	Inches.
1879	$37\frac{3}{5}$
1880	$20\frac{4}{5}$
1881	$29\frac{4}{5}$
1882	$30\frac{2}{5}$
Total for 4 years	$118\frac{3}{5}$
Mean	$29\frac{3}{5}$

The yearly mean of Genoa is 52 inches, that of Nice 32 inches, and that of Hyères $29\frac{3}{5}$ inches.

Now Genoa, owing to its position at the junction of the two broad valleys of Polcevera and Bisagno, which run up to the very crest of the Apennines, is much more exposed to the action of the mountain winds than Nice, which again is much more exposed than Hyères.

These observations tend then to establish the position that Bordighera, thanks to the solid mountain range sheltering it from the north and its projecting situation, receives less rain than its neighbours on the coast. It will, however, only be possible to settle this question with

any degree of certainty when we are in possession of the means for a considerable number of years.

I am sorry that I am unable to give the means for Cannes, Mentone, and San Remo, but observations have not been carried out for a sufficient length of time in those localities to make it worth while to do so. I may add, however, in support of the position taken up, that the rainfall at Mentone during the year 1879 amounted to $38\frac{1}{5}$ inches, and at Bordighera to $37\frac{3}{5}$ inches: thus showing that even during this period of excessive rain we had less by $\frac{1}{2}$ inch than a place barely nine miles distant.

This reasoning, based on a comparison of the observations made at Bordighera with those of the winter resorts near it, appears at first sight to be upset by the fact that the rainfall at Nice during the same year was only $32\frac{3}{10}$ inches; in other words, $5\frac{3}{10}$ inches less than fell at the former place.

But it must not be forgotten that the mean of Nice is 32 inches, and that consequently the increase for the year referred to was but of insignificant proportions. A rainfall so much above the average, then, *both* at Bordighera and Mentone, must have had an explanation, and we have no difficulty in finding it. It was caused by the violent storms of rain which those towns received from the west and south-west; and as the continuous rains from the mountains failed, it is easy to understand that no increase took place at Nice; for the heavy rain-squalls have a tendency to pass seawards of that place, leaving it to be influenced only by the mountains behind it.

The fine and persistent rains, giving but a small amount of water, but continuing for a lengthened period, which characterise the climates of northern and central Europe,

are rare in this district; for ours are of a tropical nature, and were especially so in 1879; the great excess for that year proceeding entirely from violent and extraordinary rain-storms from the south-west. As an instance, I may mention one which took place about sunrise on the 26th of September in that year, and broke over the district of Bordighera, when *nearly an inch and a quarter fell in less than an hour!* This was the heaviest rainfall of the year, but it was almost equalled by several heavy showers in the month of April.

As to the direction and character of the various rains which fall on this part of the coast, we may divide them into *three* classes, as follows:

1. Fine rains, but of long duration, and with temperature varying from 35° to 45° Fahr.; these are generally brought by a light wind from the north, although the upper current is generally from north-east. These rains sometimes change into snow; they last for some days, and visit us perhaps two or three times during the winter, during the months of November, December, January, and February.

2. Rains of a heavier character than the foregoing, but of equal duration; their temperature is somewhat higher, and they come with strong and moderate winds from the east. They are experienced at all periods of the year, except the height of summer.

3. Violent showers, but quickly over, often accompanied with thunder and lightning, and changing frequently into hail; these are brought to our coast by squalls from the west and south-west, and chiefly take place in spring and autumn—September, October, March, and April—rarely in the winter, never in the middle of the summer.

Snow seldom visits Bordighera, and its fall is generally followed by a sudden clearing of the sky, during which it rapidly melts.

The observations of the barometer offer but little interest in reports. It is very important, however, to remember that the barometer does not occupy the same position as a weather guide in these regions as in the north; its variations are not only much *less* in the south than the north, but appear to have little to do with meteorological phenomena. *Here* it may rain when the barometer is very high, and has not fallen a single fraction; and on the other hand, during our long periods of fine weather, the barometer will fall considerably and rise again, without a cloud showing itself on the horizon.

The thermometer, then, furnishes us with surer indications of a change in the weather, at least during the settled periods of the summer and winter; for a sudden rise of temperature in winter, and a sudden fall in summer, are certain signs of approaching rain.

CHAPTER IV.

WINDS.

The invalid's greatest enemy—Average number of days of violent wind—The *Mistral*—The true *levante* and the Genoese *tramontana* The *Scirocco*—The *Libeccio*—The sea breeze—Land winds.

If the position of Bordighera, with regard to the sea and the mountains, leads us *à priori* to the conclusion that it receives less rain than either Nice or Mentone, does not that position, from its very nature, cause it to suffer more acutely from winds of a violent character than those places situated in deep bays and protected by lofty promontories?

This question deserves a very serious examination, for the force and frequency of the wind, no less than its direction, is an important element in the estimation of a climate, when viewed from a medical standpoint.

Wind is, without doubt, the invalid's greatest enemy on our coast. Even the most beautiful mornings, opening with a cloudless sunrise and warm and still atmosphere, are spoilt, as the day advances, by sudden gusts of merciless and violent winds, which raise clouds of dust, and render impossible that daily constitutional to which the invalid looks forward so eagerly.

But this fault of our climate is not confined to any one place on the coast; it is, alas! common to all, and a wintering place entirely free from strong winds is one of the perfect things in this life yet to be discovered.

Dr. Sparks writes very sensibly on this subject:

> "... It may be stated with confidence, that no climate exists where storms and violent gales are unknown. It does not require a very large acquaintance with climatological literature to know how many would-be tropical and sub-tropical Paradises are at certain seasons ravaged by winds. This is true of Australia, New Zealand, and the Cape, without prolonging the enumeration further."

The wind being, then, an inevitable evil, the question which we now have to settle is, whether Bordighera is more exposed to it than its neighbours; for the old proverb tells us, "Of two evils choose the least."

Now it is more difficult to discover a trustworthy comparison of wind than of rain, owing to the manner in which observations are made. Anemometers are almost

unknown in most of our observatories, and every one registers an approximate value to the force of the wind according to his own judgment and by a table prepared by himself. It is evident, therefore, that we can accord but a relative importance to results so obtained, and that the only valuable information they give us is the *direction*, not the *force* of the winds.

In my observations at Bordighera I have classed the winds under four headings—*strong*, *moderate*, *light*, and *calm*.

Below is a table in reference *to the winds which are sufficiently strong to cause discomfort to invalids*:

Years 1879–82.

	No. of days.	Mean.
January	15	3·25
February	22	5·50
March	13	3·25
April	19	4·75
May	16	4·
June	19	4·75
July	14	3·50
August	13	3·25
September	13	3·25
October	17	4·25
November	13	3·25
December	11	2·25

From the above figures we learn, (1) that the month of February gives us the highest mean of strong winds, and that December, on the other hand, is the calmest month of the year; and (2), that during the six months of winter (say 182 days) *the number of days upon which winds blow strong enough to cause inconvenience to invalids* is on the average *twenty-two days*, or in the proportion

of *twelve per cent.* Is this proportion, then, an excessive one? Is it higher than that experienced by our neighbours on either side? I doubt it.

Besides, it is worthy of remark that our days of absolute calm during the same period are in the proportion of *sixty per cent.* However, high as this proportion may appear to us, it is probably less than we should find in those places which are sheltered by headlands, where the sea-breeze is less felt than at Bordighera. But if it is true that our position causes us to experience a greater amount of wind, this can of course only apply to those which are light and moderate. The stronger winds, coming from a distance and sweeping over a wide expanse of country, are almost equally felt by all; though it is true, no doubt, that in places like Nice and Mentone, situated at the entrances of valleys, some parts of these towns are more or less protected from certain winds, in a manner which is not the case with the outlying portions of Bordighera.

The plain of the *Borgo Marina* and the hill-sides which bound it to the north are more or less protected by the Cape from the easterly winds, which it is probable are felt less in that part of the place than either at San Remo or Mentone; but no doubt the weak point of Bordighera is its complete exposure to winds blowing from the west and south-west.

But does this fact constitute an advantage for the neighbouring places? If I did not fear the accusation of seeking everywhere and at any cost for arguments in favour of our climate, I might reply that an open enemy, attacking without concealment, is far preferable to one who hides himself, that he may assail at the most favour-

able opportunity the unsuspicious pedestrian, and when he is least prepared to repulse him.

To sum up the position, it is most probable that at Bordighera we have nearly the same number of days of strong winds as our neighbours, and perhaps a few less when it is absolutely calm.

The winds which prevail on our coast divide themselves into two classes: light winds having a local origin, and those of a more or less violent character which come from a distance. These latter, whatever may be their original direction, have a tendency to follow the configuration of the coast and mountains, and to blow east and west at Bordighera.

The *easterly wind* is that which is generally accompanied by rain; that from the west, which is the *mistral* of Provence deviated from its original course, is, above all others, the wind of fine weather, for it will not tolerate a single cloud in the sky.

The *mistral* or *maestrale* of the Italian Compass Card has an origin analogous to the trade winds of the Tropics, and follows their variations on a small scale. The gradual heating of the atmosphere on the Mediterranean coast causes a current of cold air to move from the north, which, encountering the chain of the Alps and seeking a means of escape, turns to the west, and rushes south, by the opening offered it by the valley of the Rhone. Arrived south of the mountains, it swerves to the east, attracted by the southern face of the Maritime Alps, where, owing to the sun's rays striking on a vast extent of barren mountains, there is a great rarefaction of the air.

In Provence and at Nice the *mistral* is a north-westerly

wind, but at Bordighera, and indeed everywhere to the east of the point of Monaco, the massive mountain range formed by the *Tête-de-chien*, the *Agel*, the *Brès*, and *Grammont* turn it to the west, and force it to pass over the sea, which modifies considerably the cold and dry character it originally possessed.

The easterly winds may be divided into two classes. The true Italian *levante*, a light or moderate wind, greatly charged with moisture, which comes to us direct from the marshy plains of Tuscany. Originally this wind is a *scirocco* or south-east wind, deflected from its original direction by the chain of the Apennines: on our coast it is the wind which not only brings us the worst weather, but that which has also the longest duration. The other easterly wind is never accompanied by wet weather, though it is often the precursor of it: it is merely a cold Genoese *tramontana* drawn to the west by the sun's action on this part of our coast.

We might almost call it an easterly *mistral*, so analogous are the origins of the two winds; and, like its relative, it is cold, strong, and blows tempestuously beneath a perfectly cloudless sky for periods extending from some hours to several days: this is the worst wind from which the district suffers.

As a third violent wind we must mention the south-west or *libeccio*, as it is called in Italy. This wind visits us in the form of gales, lasting from one to three days, often accompanied by storms of tropical rain. It is easily recognised, in opposition to the *mistral*, by the large, dense *cumuli* with which it covers the sky.

The light winds, *of local origin*, are the sea and land breezes, and these are only experienced when the weather

is very fine and settled, the sky cloudless, and no other winds are troubling the atmosphere. Their origin is analogous to that of the *mistral*. The sun, during the earlier portion of the day, heats the earth more than the sea, and towards midday a movement of air commences towards the land, in order to replace the rarefied air which has ascended to the higher regions. After sunset exactly the opposite takes place; the chill produced by radiation is greater on land than on sea, and the current of air is now reversed, and travels from the land seawards.

Many authors state that this land breeze blows regularly from sunset to sunrise, but this is incorrect. I have already shown that the cloudless nights give us two distinct *minima* of temperature, and it is a fact that the land wind follows faithfully the variations of the thermometer; it springs up with the first *minimum* of the evening, which coincides with the fall of the dew, and dying away almost to nothing during the relatively warmer hours of the middle of the night, revives again with fresh intensity towards morning, when the thermometer falls once more.

But not unfrequently, and especially during the height of the summer, during the warmer period referred to, a current of air blows from the sea landwards.

The ordinary sea breeze rises generally from the south-east about 10.30 A.M., and veering steadily to the southward and westward, finishes off towards sunset by blowing from a south-westerly direction. No sufficient explanation of the cause of this phenomenon has yet been proposed. Certain meteorologists have indeed attributed this peculiarity to the sun successively heating the different slopes of the mountains which face towards the sea. But this explanation is hardly admissible, when one bears in mind the

undulating irregularity of our coast line; and, further, that the phenomenon in question is found to exist along the whole length of the Riviera.

I venture, however, to suggest the following as a more probable theory:

This wind being due to a current of cold air produced by the action of the sun's rays upon the mountains, the air which supplies this current is necessarily drawn from the coldest point in the immediate neighbourhood. Now, this point we know is neither beneath the sun nor behind him, but well in front of his course, where the atmosphere has not yet felt his full power.

CHAPTER V.

THE ATMOSPHERE.

The southern sun—Effect of light upon the respiration of animal and vegetable life—Mean of cloudless and cloudy days—Hygrometrical observations—Views of Corsica—The parhelion of 1882.

THE glorious southern sunshine and heavenly blue of the Mediterranean constitute, far more than a high temperature, the especial charm of the Riviera, and it is fine weather, more even than warmth, which tempts strangers from the sunless north to visit our shores.

This is a fact which is not sufficiently recognised.

Many visitors, strangers to the Riviera, and arriving there perhaps just as summer is turning gently into autumn, suffer a cruel disappointment, and feel almost as if some deception had been practised upon them, when

they experience the cold weather of December and January.

Deceived by the poetic and exaggerated descriptions of a southern climate which have reached them in the North, and encouraged in this error by the appearance of the sub-tropical vegetation they find in the gardens after the glorious summer of the South, they look forward to passing a winter which shall be but a perpetual spring.

Forests of grey olives cover the hill-sides everywhere; oranges and lemons around them are ripening in the open air; violets may be plucked in the woods in December, and anemones in January; the date-palm and eucalyptus are in the public walks, whilst in the gardens the banana, the fan-palm, the guava, and a profusion of other sub-tropical, nay, even tropical plants, pass the winter out of doors; everything suggesting at first sight a climate many degrees warmer than is really the case.

But, in truth, the vegetation in these parts is even less to be relied upon than are the poets.

The olive is an extremely hardy tree; it grows high up in our mountain valleys, where the climate in no degree presents a southern temperature, and the date-palm possesses these characteristics to even a greater extent; whilst with regard to the banana, even if it manages to survive our winters, it bears no fruit, or none worth speaking of. Indeed, to get satisfactory results from this latter, a far warmer climate than that of the Riviera is required, and it is well known that even at Algiers the fruit never arrives at perfection.

So, though no doubt our climate, and that of this portion of the Mediterranean coast, is much superior to those of Northern Europe, its chief characteristics consist

in the intense brilliancy and perpetual sunshine which a constantly unclouded sun disperses through the atmosphere.

Both animal and vegetable life alike profit by this excess of sunshine, but we know that the respiration of each is exactly the reverse of the other; that plants exposed to the influence of light absorb carbonic acid, and exhale oxygen, and animals do precisely the opposite; and that these actions of the respiratory organs have an activity proportionate to the intensity of the light.

Now, the sunshine in the South, being infinitely more intense than in the cloudy countries of the North, it results that the respiration not only of animals, but also of plants, takes place under far more favourable conditions in the former than the latter. This, then, is the real secret of the brilliant vegetation of our coast; and this also is, without doubt, the cause why so many serious complaints are benefited and not unfrequently cured by a residence at a Rivieran winter resort. But the temperature often falls considerably in these parts, and the air becomes quite cold enough to render an overcoat or shawl no less necessary at Nice or Bordighera than at Paris or London.

The real difference between the two meteorological zones consists in the contrast presented by the clouds of the former and the fogs of the latter town to our blue and cloudless sky, and to those sunny days which frequently, in some winters, follow each other month by month, with scarcely an interruption.

The whole of the Mediterranean basin has the good fortune to enjoy the great privilege of a cloudless sky more than any other region with an equally temperate climate: more so indeed than most of the tropical ones.

But all the coast does not possess it to the same extent, and none probably to so great a degree, if we except some parts of the Levant, as the amphitheatre formed by the union of the gulfs of Genoa and Lyons.

The meteorological influences which combine to produce such a state of things are not difficult to point out. The two powerful winds from beyond the Alps, the *mistral*, which blows from the west, and the Genoese *tramontana* from the east, are indefatigable in clearing the sky of clouds, whilst the enormous radiation which takes place during the winter nights plays a not unimportant part, as it prevents the watery vapours collecting in the upper air. These causes combined give us a state of sky exactly the opposite of that of Northern Europe, viz. that the number of our *cloudy* days is about equal to the total of their fine ones, and *vice versâ*.

The following table shows that the mean during the six winter months was 81 perfectly cloudless days at Bordighera. The average at Nice during the same period was 60, and at London 12.

Years 1879–82.

Perfectly Cloudless Days.

	Days.	Average.
January	57	14·2
February	48	12·
March	61	12·7
April	32	8·
May	54	13·5
June	69	17·2
July	88	22·
August	65	13·7
September	62	13·
October	40	10·
November	64	16·
December	67	16·7
Mean per month		14·

Days completely Overcast.

	Days.	Average.
January	20	5·
February	19	4·9
March	11	2·7
April	16	4·
May	20	5·
June	8	2·
July	0	0·
August	1	0·25
September	10	2·5
October	19	4·7
November	20	5·
December	14	3·5
Mean per month		3·3

We may remark that it is not in mid-winter, but well forward in spring and autumn, viz. the months of April and October, that give us the lowest means of cloudless days; and the month of December is, of the winter months, that which has the lowest number of those days which are completely overcast.

If we take out from the foregoing table the particulars for the six winter months (from October to March), we obtain the following results:

Perfectly Fine Days.

January	14·2
February	12·
March	12·7
October	10·
November	16·
December	16·7
Total	81·6
Mean per month	13·6

Being 24·7 per cent. of the 182 days composing the six months.

DAYS ENTIRELY OVERCAST.

January	5·
February	4·9
March	2·7
October	4·7
November	5·
December	3·5
Total	25·8
Mean per month	4·3

Thus giving 7·8 per cent. for the 182 days as above.

Hygrometrical observations have not been made at Bordighera either for a sufficient length of time, or with sufficient regularity during the year, to be of any value.

I can only place before the reader, interested in this subject, the results of a series of observations made by one of our winter residents during the season of 1881-82 by means of the wet and dry bulb thermometer (Mason's hygrometer), in a garden close to the beach. The thermometers were placed under cover, in a Stevenson's louvre-screened cage, at the height of about four feet from the ground, and at a suitable distance from houses and trees.

Here then is the result of these observations as to the relative moisture; saturation being considered equal to 100:

OBSERVATIONS AT 8 A.M.

	Thermometer.		Relative Humidity.
	Dry Bulb.	Wet Bulb.	
November 1881	54	49	74
December „	46	42	73
January 1882	44	42	76
February „	48	42	65
March „	54	48	64
April „	59	53	60
		Mean	68·6

OBSERVATIONS AT 2 P.M.

	Thermometer.		Relative Humidity.
	Dry Bulb.	Wet Bulb.	
November 1881	61	55	68
December „	54	48	58
January 1882	57	51	64
February „	58	49	52
March „	62	55	59
April „	63	55	57
		Mean	59·6
		General mean ..	64·1

The usual mean of the relative moisture at Bordighera during the winter months will then be 64·1. This indicates an extraordinary dryness, if we compare it with that either of Paris or London. In northern climates, the moisture of the atmosphere is almost always correlative of the state of the sky and the existing weather; an increase of moisture indicating approaching rain or *vice versâ*. On the Ligurian coast it is otherwise. The rain-clouds do not form themselves above our heads, but they are brought by the various winds from far off, and, as we may say, discharge their contents in passing, and frequently from a great height. It then frequently happens that rain falls when the atmosphere on the earth's surface is at the maximum of dryness.

The view of the mountains of Corsica, which we obtain from time to time, is always a point of great interest to strangers, as it only occurs at intervals and under very exceptional circumstances. If the Corsican mountains were visible on each occasion when the weather is clear to the south-west, the fact would be of no greater importance than a similar view of the other distant mountains which rise above the horizon, such as the Cape Roux of the Estérel for instance, which may be always seen. But

Corsica is *not* always visible, not even in the clearest weather.

We may sometimes look for it on a winter's day, a day following rain even, when the atmosphere is wonderfully clear, and search the horizon with a telescope, without being able to discover any signs of it; whilst on another, in the afternoon perhaps, when the atmosphere may be thick and hazy all round, you may distinguish its peculiar outline, traced indistinctly in the distance. But it is in the autumn especially, and in the early morning a few moments before sunrise, that this phenomenon presents itself in its singular beauty. Then it is that Corsica appears strangely near and enlarged, and the outlines of the mountains delineated with astonishing clearness: all their irregularities are visible, and it seems almost as if we could make out the houses and trees, whilst it is difficult to believe that anything more than a few hours' row now separates us from them.

To find out the explanation of these apparent contradictions, there are two things we must take account of: the *height* of these Corsican mountains and their *distance* from this coast.

Now the summits which are seen from Bordighera are those of the lofty mountain range which runs across the north-west portion of the island, between Calvi and St. Florent. This chain contains Monte Rotondo, the highest mountain in Corsica, whose peak rises 8768 feet above the level of the sea.

On the other hand, the distance of our shores from the coast of Corsica is just 100 miles, and from Monte Rotondo about 136 miles.

Now it is well known that distant objects viewed across

the sea are partially hidden by it; that anyone watching a ship sailing away from him loses sight first of all of the deck, then of the lower masts, and so on; the disappearance being gradual, until finally even her trucks disappear from view.

Arguing then from these facts, we arrive scientifically at the conclusion that an observer standing at Bordighera about 300 feet above the level of the sea, and looking straight before him, would see nothing more than the topmost peak of the mountain.

But we see far more than this, even from the level of the sea; and it is only necessary to examine the outline of Corsica carefully on a fine autumn morning, to convince oneself that we can see nearly, if not quite indeed, as far down as the shore.

It is therefore evident that it is owing to refraction or *mirage* that we enjoy so complete a view of this island.

Now it is a scientific fact that rays of light have the property of refracting themselves—that is to say, of deviating from a straight line—when passing obliquely from one transparent medium to another more or less refringent than the first. And further, that the greater be the difference in density between the two mediums, the greater in proportion will be the refraction; whilst if this passage takes place from a less refringent medium to another which is more so, the deflection will be towards the observer; in the contrary case, the opposite will take place. Thus, if a stick be plunged obliquely into water, it will appear to bend at the point of immersion and the other end will seem nearer to the observer than it is in reality.

To apply these data to the phenomenon which we are considering, it is necessary to imagine the following state

of things: over Corsica an atmosphere so clear that the mountains are strongly lit up, and which is also so exceedingly dry that the air is but slightly refringent; over the sea an atmosphere greatly charged with moisture, and consequently highly refringent.

The results being that the luminous rays leaving Corsica meet a denser and more refringent medium, which has the effect of deflecting the image of the island towards the earth, and thus enabling us to see that which is really below the horizon. And this also explains how it is that we can sometimes see Corsica even in hazy or foggy weather.

But if we imagine an exactly opposite state of things, viz. a moist atmosphere over Corsica and a dry one over the sea, it is clear that exactly the reverse will take place; the luminous rays meeting a less refringent medium will be deflected upwards, and however clear the horizon may appear, we shall see nothing.

I cannot conclude this chapter without speaking of two very remarkable phenomena, showing an abnormal state of atmosphere, which were witnessed at Bordighera at the commencement of the year 1882.

The barometrical pressures were extraordinary over the whole of Europe; the maximum of 30·434 which was reached in Ireland had not been observed within the memory of man, and at Bordighera the height for several weeks had averaged 30·355.

The results of such an unparalleled state of things, viz. so extraordinarily heavy an atmosphere, were as curious as they were varied.

To begin with, the weather was extremely beautiful; we had at Bordighera, during the period in question, nine-

teen days, following each other, absolutely cloudless from morning till night.

But the effect of such an abnormal pressure of atmosphere, added to an extreme dryness, was not only entirely to clear the sky of clouds; it produced phenomena very rarely seen in these latitudes, and influenced both animate and inanimate nature in a very remarkable manner. People of a nervous temperament felt ill and depressed, the insane became violent, certain complaints became aggravated, whilst others were benefited. Inanimate nature offered phenomena hardly less singular: the influence of the atmospheric pressure was felt to the depths of the earth; the water in wells rose without rain, fountains gushed more abundantly, and the fire-damp in collieries threatened explosion.

Two very interesting and unusual phenomena were noticed on this coast during the period in question.

On the 20th of January, at two o'clock in the afternoon, a thick fog of remarkable dryness, whose presence so near the ground it was difficult to explain, spread itself all over the country; it was brought by a south-east wind and consequently from the direction of Corsica. The same phenomenon was observed at Nice a few days previously.

These dry and dense fogs advancing in narrow columns —for whilst that which visited Nice was not experienced at Bordighera, ours of the 20th was not observed in that town or further east than Oneglia—are peculiarly characteristic of the Polar Regions. For the same causes produce the same effects. The barometrical pressure rendering the presence of watery vapours in the atmosphere impossible, produces an extraordinary dryness; an exactly similar result being brought about by the

intense cold of the Arctic regions, and this dryness, for reasons of which we know little, causes a variety of interesting and peculiar phenomena.

Amongst the most curious of these is the parhelion, a very beautiful specimen of which was seen at Bordighera on the 27th of January. Towards one o'clock in the afternoon, a fog similar to that of the 20th, but at a much greater altitude, spread itself over the sky, and soon a wide and luminous circle was formed some distance around the sun; a few moments later *two mock suns* (*parhelia*), coloured like the rainbow, appeared on the outer side of the circle, on a line with the sun, and to the east and west of it. This striking phenomenon lasted for more than an hour. At one time it was possible to see an arc of the counter circle above, which is a detail of great rarity in parhelia, even in those regions where they frequently occur.

PART IV.

NATURAL HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

LOCAL GEOLOGY.

Geological history of Liguria—The Nummulitic Sea—Formation of deltas—Fossiliferous clays—Levels of the various upheavals—Pliocene fossils—Stratification of the plain of Bordighera—Porosity of the soil—Mineral springs.

The geological history of the narrow strip of land which stretches between the chain of the Maritime Alps and the sea, goes back to the end of the Cretaceous period.

This belt of country, composed of a mass of secondary mountains singularly ragged and furrowed by deep valleys, is essentially tertiary, from the great fault at the shore up to the crystalline rocks of the crest of the Alps and Apennines; it does not offer, however, except very rarely, any signs of other formations more ancient than the eocene.

But on the other hand, all geologists are agreed in acknowledging that it is impossible to study the tertiary formations and their admirable fossils, anywhere so well as in Western Liguria, where nature has brought them together in a narrow space, like specimens in a museum.

From the period of the Nummulitic sea, which covered the whole of the country towards the end of the Jurassic period, this coast has been the theatre of repeated depressions and upheavals, which however did not alter its topographical character in any important degree.

The ridges which separate the valleys, and the watercourses which the mountain streams have worn between them, have maintained their present position through every geological vicissitude.

The result of which has been that the streams at certain times rushing towards the sea as mountain torrents, during periods of upheaval, at others, thrown back so as to form slow flowing rivers with deep estuaries, thanks to subsidences of the soil—have deposited upon their deltas, at different epochs, shingle, sand and clay.

The whole of the hills which border the torrents between the valley of Borghetto and the crest of the Berceau, contain deposits of Pliocene clay, rich in fossils, belonging to the tertiary beds called "sub-apennine," as they are met with on all the hill sides of Liguria and the Apennines, from Antibes far into the south of Italy and in Sicily.

The upheaval which produced these hills, which is believed to be one of the most ancient of the Pliocene formations, has its culminating point not far from Ventimiglia, where the fossiliferous clay is found about 950 feet above the level of the sea; whilst at Genoa it does not rise much above 20 feet, at Savona about 150 feet, and at Albenga to about 220 feet. This upheaval indeed is said to be the earliest of which Italy has been the theatre, as the Pliocene fossils of these regions and Upper Italy generally show no less than 76 per cent. of extinct

species. This proportion regularly diminishes as we go South, until the lowest percentage of barely 30 is reached in Calabria and Sicily.

The Pliocene clays generally rest on beds of gravelly conglomerate, rich in bivalve shells, and these again, as one may see at the *Cima di Monte*, on a conglomerate (*pudding-stone*) with very large pebbles, the composition of which clearly shows that it has been formed by a sea so violent in its nature as to be almost impossible to conceive in the present epoch.

This conglomerate rests in its turn upon the black limestone which crops out on the hill sides of the Borghetto valley, where it is used for the manufacture of hydraulic lime, and side by side with the sandstone on the lower slopes of *Monte Nero*.

Some traces of the volcanic action by which these upheavals have been brought about, are met with here and there in the veins of porpyhry which have penetrated to the surface through crevasses in the strata above them: an example of this may be found between Monaco and Eza.*

The lover of fossils will be struck when hunting for them in the Pliocene clays, not only by the remarkable number of species represented (more than 70 indeed have been tabulated), but by the admirable state of preservation which the shells are in. Anyone who will take the trouble to visit the valleys of Borghetto, Vallecrosia, or Nervia, can find for himself specimens superior to most which are found in the Geological museums. Dr. Goodchild, the English physician practising at Bordighera, has presented the British Museum with no less than 415

* Chambrun de Rosement—*Etudes géologiques sur le Var et le Rhône.*

specimens of Pliocene fossils collected by him in the neighbourhood of Bordighera and Vallecrosia.

The cape at Mortola also offers a rich deposit of nummulites of Eocene origin which may be followed up the slopes of the Berceau to a height of between 900 and 1000 feet.

The fine plain which stretches from the cape of Bordighera as far as the right bank of the Nervia, the eastern portion of which is destined to receive the Bordighera of the future, is entirely of recent formation: its existence does not even extend beyond historic times. It is to a certain extent a delta, formed by the alluvium of the torrents which have brought down gravel, sand, and mud, by *débris* from the hills, which have added to all this deposits of conglomerate and clay; and lastly, by the constant action of a current which sets along the coast from west to east, and which has thrown up the detritus of the various rivers, and thus completely succeeded in effacing the bend or elbow which originally formed the creek or *bordigue* of St. Ampelio.

It may strike some readers as strange that I should speak of a current setting from west to east along the Ligurian coast, since it is a well-known fact that the great current of the Mediterranean flows from east to west in the gulf of Genoa; hence an explanation of this apparent anomaly, and a few words on the general question of currents and tides in the Mediterranean, will not here be out of place.

It is often said that the Mediterranean is a tideless sea; and such is indeed the case, practically speaking. The

shallowness of its waters, its limited extent, and the large promontories and islands which crowd its surface, dividing it into a series of narrow channels and deep gulfs, are all circumstances calculated to preclude the formation of a tidal wave. Still, the waters of the Mediterranean are not motionless like those of a stagnant pond. The wholesome purifying effects which tides produce on the seaboards where they occur, by continually changing the water which bathes the coast, are provided for in a different way in this land-locked sea.

The level of the Mediterranean is considerably lower than that of the Atlantic: a fact caused entirely by the enormous evaporation inherent to a shallow sea under a hot sun and a cloudless sky.

To form an idea of this astonishing amount of evaporation, one has only to remember that besides the strong current which the difference of level causes to flow in by the strait of Gibraltar, the Mediterranean absorbs—in common with the Black Sea, which forms part of its system—the waters of all the greatest rivers of Europe, excepting only the Rhine and the Volga; and to this enormous mass of fresh water we must add that contributed by one of the most important rivers of Africa, the Nile.

The chief effect of this great influx of fresh water is, no doubt, to temper the excessive saltness which the sea would acquire, were the difference of level compensated by the inflow at Gibraltar alone, seeing that the evaporation leaves the salt behind; as it is, the Mediterranean is but slightly salter than the Atlantic.

Still, it may be asked why the saltness of the Mediter-

ranean does not continue regularly increasing, since sea-water is constantly pouring into it, and the answer to this question is well worth a few lines, as it elucidates one of the prettiest phenomena in nature.

Strong brine is heavier than ordinary sea-water; consequently the current which enters by the strait of Gibraltar spreads itself on the surface of the Mediterranean, the brine left by evaporation sinking to the bottom, and thence, in obedience to the law of the equilibrium of liquids of different densities, flowing out into the Atlantic as an under-current. And this outflow necessarily takes place in greater or less quantity, exactly in proportion to the strength and depth of the brine which forms the substratum of the Mediterranean, the saltness of whose waters is thus maintained at a certain degree and regulated with the greatest nicety.

The same phenomenon occurs under still more striking circumstances in the Red Sea, the level of which, owing to evaporation, is identical with that of the Mediterranean, as is practically demonstrated by the absence of any current in the Suez canal. But the Red Sea receives no important rivers; consequently, the loss of water from evaporation is entirely compensated by the current which sets in through the strait of Bab el Mandeb, the brine flowing out at the bottom, as at Gibraltar, and thus maintaining the water but little, if at all, salter than that of the Mediterranean.

But, to return to the question of tides and currents: The compensation for evaporation supplied by rivers, however great it may be, would prove totally insufficient without the help of the volume of water which pours in at Gibraltar, forming a system of currents the effects of

which are perceptible throughout the Mediterranean. From the strait of Gibraltar the current proceeds eastward, along the north coast of Africa; on meeting the island of Sicily, it divides into two branches, one flowing towards the Levant by the Malta channel, the other turning north along the east coasts of Sardinia and Corsica, then deflecting westward, after doubling Cape Corse, so as to strike the coast of France at the bottom of the gulf of Lyons. Here its main body again swerves to the west and proceeds to disperse itself along the coast of Spain; but at the same time a small *counter-current* turns eastward and comes along the sea-board of Provence and Liguria, and it is owing to this particular fact that we have a current from west to east, which, although almost imperceptible elsewhere, is easily recognisable at Bordighera, owing to the projecting configuration of the coast, which forms, so to speak, a *strait* between the land and the main current flowing in the opposite direction at sea, and through which the *counter-current* is compelled to force its way.

But this system of currents of the Mediterranean is necessarily affected by the tidal wave of the Atlantic. When it is high-water outside the straits of Gibraltar, the inflow naturally takes place in greater quantity than at low-water. Hence the currents of the Mediterranean are constantly receiving a series of impulses, at regular intervals, which are, in fact, *secondary tidal waves*, and which produce small tides throughout the system. These are, however, so slight on our coast, that any disturbing influence, such as winds blowing from the sea or the shore, or a heavy swell, suffice to render them imperceptible; but in calm weather, a tide of ten or twelve inches may be

recognised on this coast. In deep gulfs, on the other hand, they are more apparent: at Venice there is a tide of several feet.

The following table will show the order of the various beds which form the soil of the delta of Bordighera in the upper parts, towards the commencement of the hills:

Humus.
Sandy clay or sand with recent shells.
Gravelly pudding-stone. . . . Sea level. . . .
Hard fossiliferous pudding-stone.
Fossiliferous sandstone.
Black limestone.
Primitive rocks. (?)

Nearer the sea the clay disappears, the sand and gravel resting directly on the conglomerate.

The soil of this plain has an extraordinary porosity; the rainfall passes through it with marvellous rapidity, and in spite of the neighbourhood of the hills, the fresh-water level which feeds the wells is never sensibly higher than the surface of the Mediterranean.

The water from the wells and springs which we are compelled to use at Bordighera and San Remo, pending the construction of the aqueduct (a work greatly to be desired), which is to bring us the abundant and delicious water of the Roya or the Nervia—is of an excellent quality for drinking, although strongly impregnated with calcareous salts, drawn without doubt from the bed of gravelly conglomerate. Indeed, of mineral waters Liguria possesses none, save a few sulphurous springs. These springs, often warm on the northern face of the Alps and the Apennines, as at Valdieri and at Acqui, are uniformly cold or nearly so on the southern. The valleys of the Vésubie and the Borréon, as well as those of the Roya and the Nervia, contain a large number of sulphur springs, but the flow is too insignificant, and the sulphurous matter in solution too small in quantity, to make it practicable to turn them to any account.

I give below an analysis made in 1820 by Signor Mojon, the analytical chemist of Genoa, as to the properties contained in the water of the springs of *Giunchetto*, which flow from the side of Montenero, close to the *Madonna della Ruota*:

Sulphate of lime	00·003
Chloride of calcium	00·001
Chloride of sodium	00·004
Sulpho-carbonate of lime	00·003
Water	09·989
	10·000

CHAPTER II.

THE FAUNA OF LIGURIA.

Poverty of the South as regards animal life—Mammalia—Birds of passage—Feathered game—Reptiles and batrachians, Mediterranean fish—Insects: the scorpion, the fire-fly, the *cigale*—Lepidoptera.

THE fauna of the Mediterranean coast is as poor as its flora is rich.

Whilst in Northern Europe the woods and forests re-echo in the spring with the carols of innumerable birds, the marshes swarm with wild fowl and the rivers with fish, in this district the naturalist is painfully struck by the absence of animal life of every kind.

The causes of this absence, which is found throughout the whole of Southern Europe, are not difficult to discover. One's first thoughts would naturally be, that in so lovely a climate, so especially suited to open-air life, wild animals would exist under extraordinary favourable conditions; that they would be attracted in great numbers to a region where they would escape not only from the frosts, but from the damp of the countries of the North.

But the extreme dryness of the summer leads to an opposite result. The small carnivora are rare because their prey, the birds and large insects, disappear during part of the year; whilst the herbivora, such as the rabbit and hare, have difficulty in finding food on the scorched hills of Liguria during the months of July and August. And the case is almost similar with the birds; for in the summer the extreme dryness of the country drives away the insects, thus forcing the insectivora to migrate elsewhere, whilst the granivora find but little to satisfy their hunger in a country covered with olive plantations. And as if this was not sufficient, man steps in to make desolation complete. "*La Chasse*," carried on as it is in the South, has no doubt contributed enormously to diminish the number of the smaller birds, and this wanton massacre is to be regretted from more than one point of view. But what else can be the result, when everyone is anxious to be a sportsman, and game does not exist? It is but natural, under such circumstances, to fall back upon anything that has wings, and not even to spare the tomtits and the wrens!

The Mammalia of this district in the present day are entirely devoid of interest. The brown bear of the Alps, the wolf and the lynx, formerly abounded in these mountains; the two last still existed at the commencement of this century in the woods of *Montenero* above Bordighera, but they have entirely disappeared for a long time past.

The small birds which are found are the chaffinch, the siskin, the goldfinch, the warblers, the water-wagtails, the thrushes, and others; these which in northern countries remain the whole of the year, pass over this coast in the spring on their journey to the extreme north of Europe, returning again in the autumn, *en route* to their winter quarters in Central Africa. Spring time, always delightful in the south of Europe, owes at least one of its attractions to these songsters, especially the nightingales and chaffinches, who fill the olive woods with their melodies during the months of April and May.

Amongst the birds of passage of an interesting character we may notice the golden-oriole (*Oriolis galbula*), the hoopoe (*Upopa epops*), several herons, and amongst others

which do not migrate, the blue thrush (*Turdus cyaneus*), who build their nests even in the roofs of inhabited houses, the screech-owl (*Bubo maximus*), the largest of European owls, and which is common in the mountains, many falcons, amongst others the bee-eater (*Pernis apivorus*), and the royal eagle (*Aquila fulva*).

Winged game is neither varied nor abundant, except quails, which in certain years on their flight (coming from or returning to Africa,) settle in enormous numbers along the whole length of the coast. The wild duck, the black diver, the teal, show themselves from time to time at the mouths of the torrents, and a few red-legged partridges still exist in the moorland amongst the hills. The heath-cock, who is a perfect epicure for whortle-berries, is occasionally met with in the high valleys of the Maritime Alps.

Among the reptiles it is hardly necessary to mention the beautiful lizards (*Lacerta viridis*), so well known to all visitors to the South of Europe, sometimes eighteen inches in length, which are found among the brushwood on the hills, the common wall-lizard (*Lacerta muralis*), several handsome snakes, especially *Zamenis viridiflavus* and the viper, common in the mountains. The Greek tortoise is indigenous in Liguria as throughout the whole of Southern and Central Italy, but it is at the present time rarely found in a wild state. Placed at liberty in a garden it thrives well, and breeds freely without any looking after.

The Batrachians are represented by the graceful salamander (*Salamandra maculosa*) which lives in the rocks and in the crevices of old walls, and which the common people erroneously think venomous; but still more

markedly by the pretty little green tree frog (*Hyla viridis*), the peculiar croaking of which will not fail to attract the attention of the freshly arrived visitor, especially in the summer months; and it is one of the signs of spring, well known to all who have wintered on the Riviera, when the harsh "croak, croak" is first heard on a March or April evening.*

The Mediterranean is far from containing as much fish as the seas of Northern Europe, although, on the other hand, it presents us with a larger number of species. Several sharks, the sword-fish and the tunny fish are amongst the largest that swim in its waters, but they are not met with to any great extent in either the Gulf of Lyons or of Genoa. Amongst the small fish, suitable for the table, are the anchovy and the sardine, which take the first place; following them are the *loup*, the *dorade*, and red and white mullets, &c., but all are not only inferior in size but in quality, when compared with those caught either in the Atlantic or English Channel.

The class of insects offers a far more interesting field to the naturalist than any other division of the animal kingdom. The European scorpion is very common, but his sting, although very painful, is not dangerous or fatal.

The Coleoptera are richly represented: amongst the most interesting species I may mention the Sacred Beetle of ancient Egypt (*Ateuchus sacer*), which one sees on every road during the spring, hard at work rolling his ball of manure.

* It was to silence this croaking (something terrible when a large number are collected together) that the old feudal nobles, prior to the Revolution of 1788, kept the peasants the whole night through beating the marshes around their chateaux.—A. C. D.

The Firefly or "luciole" (*Phosphœnus hemipterus*), appears in extraordinary numbers in the month of April, disappearing again at the end of May, and nothing strikes a stranger so much, or leaves so lasting an impression on his mind "of the sunny south," as an hour passed some lovely spring evening in a Ligurian garden,

> ". . . Where the flower of the orange blows,
> and the fire-flies glance through the myrtle boughs."

The Cigale is another characteristic insect of the south; it sings on every tree during midsummer, but it is only heard during the hottest hours of the most beautiful days.

> "Sole sub ardenti resonant arbusta cicadis."
>
> "Under the burning sun, the woods re-echo with the cigale's song."
>
> VIRGIL.

The order of Lepidoptera will afford a rich harvest to the collector in the gardens and on the hills of Liguria during the months of April, May, and June.

The moths, however, are not particularly interesting, the most remarkable being the gigantic *Bombyx pavonia major* and *Bombyx processionaria*, whose caterpillars live in colonies of thousands together on the branches of the Maritime Pine. But the diurnal and crepuscular Lepidoptera are well worthy of the attention of all admirers of this attractive division of the animal kingdom. I therefore subjoin an annotated catalogue of the most interesting species peculiar to the south, which the amateur aurelian may expect to take on the Riviera. An asterisk distinguishes those rarer British species which I have thought advisable to mention.

PAPILIONIDÆ.

Papilio Podalirius, (*) Linn., Scarce Swallow-tail.
„ *Machaon*, (*) Linn., Common Swallow-tail.
„ *Alexanor*, Esper.

Podalirius and *Machaon* are abundant everywhere throughout the summer. *Alexanor* is a small species very similar to *Machaon*, abundant in the French departments of the *Hautes* and *Basses Alpes*. Probably occurs among our mountains.

Thais hypsipile, Fabricius.
„ *medisicasta*, Godart.

An exclusively Mediterranean genus. The strange and brilliant marking of the wings gives the insect a peculiarly tropical appearance. *Hypsipile* is fond of marshy woods, and is abundant in those along the coast near Pisa. *Medisicasta* frequents upland valleys.

Parnasius Apollo of authors.
„ *Mnemosyne* of authors.

Apollo is a doubtful British species, but common in most alpine regions, the caterpillar feeding on saxifrage and *Crassulaceæ*. *Mnemosyne* is a smaller species without the ocelli of Apollo; will probably be found in the mountains.

Gonepterix rhamni (*) of authors, Brimstone Butterfly.
„ *Cleopatra* of authors.

Both common in the early spring.

Colias edusa, (*) Linn., Clouded Yellow.
„ *hyale*, (*) Linn., Pale Clouded Yellow.

Common in autumn.

Nymphalidæ.

Argynnis Daphne, Fabricius.

All the British *Fritillaries* are probably to be met with on the coast, as also the handsome and exclusively southern *A. Daphne*, common on the mountains near Toulon.

All the British species of the genus *Vanessa* are abundant on the Riviera. *V. Antiopa* and *Atalanta* (Red Admiral) may often be noticed on the wing in winter.

Cynthia cardui, (*) Fabricius. Painted Lady.
„ *Levana*, Westwood.

The Painted Lady, so remarkable for its migratory habits and world-wide habitat, may always be taken plentifully on the Riviera; but from time to time it appears in spring in enormous numbers, and may be noticed in swarms on the waste lands, where there are plants of *Tyrimnus leucographus*. It has been asserted that these flights of butterflies come over from Africa, but the assertion requires proof. At any rate, the wings of the individuals that compose them are generally sufficiently damaged to justify the idea. *C. Levana* is a southern species.

Liminitis camilla (*) of authors. White Admiral.
„ *Sybilla*, Linn.

The latter probably in the valley of the Nervia and similar localities. The White Admiral is not rare in gardens.

Neptis Lucilla, Fabricius.

A tropical type. Not rare in Piedmont; probably in our inland valleys such as the neighbourhood of Albenga.

Apatura Iris (*) of authors. Purple Emperor.
„ *Ilia*, Fabricius.

These splendid insects are perhaps less rare than is commonly supposed, from their habit of flying high.

Nymphalis Jasius, Fabricius.

The most tropical type of all European Lepidoptera. The caterpillar feeds on the *Arbutus unedo*. This magnificent butterfly is common in Provence, and especially at Hyères. It may probably occur on our Montenero, which, like the hills of Hyères, is covered with arbutus.

The vast group of butterflies composing the tribe of the *Satyridæ*, genera *Satyrus*, *Erebia*, *Hipparchia*, &c., distinguished by eye-like spots on the wings and sober colours, forms alone more than one-third of the diurnal Lepidoptera of Europe. They are neither peculiarly interesting nor very abundant in this region, their favourite habitats being damp and shady woods or alpine meadows and heaths.

The following species belong to the south of Europe:

Erebia ceto, Hubner.
„ *epistygne* „
Satyrus actæa, Esper.
„ *cordula*, Fabricius.
„ *fidia*, Linn.
„ *Circe*, Fab.
„ *eudora* „
„ *Ida*, Esper.
„ *Pasiphae* „

Erycinidæ.

This family is composed of small but richly coloured butterflies, the *Blues*, *Coppers*, and *Hair-streaks* of the

English aurelians. The following species may be quoted as belonging to the Mediterranean region:

Lycæna telicanus, Herbst.
„ *alsus*, Fab.
„ *melanops*, Boisduval.
„ *meleager*, Esper.
„ *Jolas*, Ochsenheimer.
„ *dolus*, Hubner.
„ *battus*, Fab.
„ *eumedon*, Esper.
Thecla æsculi, Hubner.
„ *evippus*, Illiger.
Polyommatus hallus, Fab.

Hesperidæ.

The *Skippers* are a small group of insects which many authors have considered as a connecting link between the true butterflies and the *Sphinges* or hawk-moths. The following belong to the region:

Hesperis nostradamus, Fab.
Syrichtus sidæ, Fab.
„ *sao*, Hubner.
„ *proto*, Ochsenheimer.

Sesii.

A remarkable family, on account of the resemblance its members bear to hymenopterous insects. Indeed, most of the *Sesii*, when on the wing, may be taken for large wasps, hornets, or wild bees. The following are indicated as peculiar to the Mediterranean coast:

Sesia brosiformis, Hubner.
„ *melliniformis*, Laspeyre.
„ *rhingiæformis*, Hubner.

Sphinges.

The magnificent family of the Hawk-moths is nowhere more richly represented than in the gardens of Liguria, where in the short twilight of summer evenings they may be noticed poising their graceful forms over every flower. Besides the well-known British species, including the Death's Head, *Acherontia atropos*, whose caterpillars may be found in every potato field, I may note the following as interesting insects:

Macroglossa stellatarum, (*) Linn., Humming Bird.

A rare British *Sphinx*, of diurnal habits. Abundant all over the south of Europe, where it often survives the winter.

Deilephila Nicæa, Depruner.
„ *euphorbiæ*, Linn.

Two very fine insects; caterpillars on various *Euphorbiæ*, especially *E. dendroides* on the mountains near Nice.

Deilephila esulæ, Boisduval.

Common, especially in Tuscany.

Deilephila vespertilio, Fab.
„ *celeris*, Linn.

Mountains of the South of France.

CHAPTER III.

THE FLORA OF LIGURIA.

Difference between the Flora of Northern and Southern Europe—Richness of the Ligurian Flora—Depredations by collectors and visitors—Extinct species—Gardening in Liguria—Annotated catalogue of interesting plants.

THE flora of Southern Europe is distinguished from those of the north by the larger proportion of herbaceous plants. Whilst in the northern countries, subject as they are to frost and extreme cold, shrubs and trees, and these mostly deciduous, are in the majority, in the tropics the contrary is the case. This modification of the character of the vegetation, which continues regularly as we journey from north to south, is already very apparent in these latitudes, for our shrubs and trees, almost all evergreens, form but a small proportion of the flora of the coast.

So it is amongst the herbaceous plants that the pedestrians of our winter colony who love flowers will find the richest harvest, will discover those which are most brilliant and perhaps most strange to them:

"Those stars, which on earth's firmament do shine."

It is the anemones, the tulips, the narcissi, and the orchids of our valleys which will especially delight visitors and cause them to realise, as never before, the words of our Lord: "Consider the lilies of the field; for I say unto you that even Solomon in all his glory was not arrayed like one of these."

Few countries offer to the botanist and lover of flowers

a field of research so rich as Liguria, and I may mention a striking illustration of this.

According to MM. Gilly and Magne, the flora of France is composed of about 5600 species of vascular plants, which gives a mean of about 1300 species to each department. In order, however, to meet with these 5600 plants of France, it is necessary to traverse the whole length and breadth of that extensive country, from the Alps to the Pyrenees, from the English Channel to the Mediterranean. But the large valleys of Liguria, owing to their peculiar topographical position, give us an opportunity of passing in a few hours from a region almost sub-tropical to one lying amongst the glaciers, and collecting on our way as many as 2500 different species, which succeed each other as we pass upwards from the sea to the mountains, in exactly the same order as that which characterises the transition, district by district, of the flora of the south to that of the north. It is thus possible to gather in the morning palm leaves on the scorched rocks of the coast, and in the evening of the same day, the *Edelweiss* on the *Col di Tenda.**

This wonderful richness of the Ligurian flora becomes still more striking if we compare it with that of the British Islands. Notwithstanding the length of Great Britain and the considerable difference of climate which exists between the south of England and the north of Scotland, the most diligent collector, were he to travel from the Land's End to John o'Groat's House, would fail

* The dwarf palm (*Chamærops humilis*), the only indigenous representative of the palm family in Europe, still grew but a few years ago on the steep cliffs of the coast, and especially at Villa Franca, but the gardeners and florists have completely exterminated it!

in meeting with more than 1708 species, and that according to the highest estimation, Babington's Manual; whereas other authors reduce the number considerably: Hooker and Arnott's Flora contains only 1571 flowering plants, a figure not equal to two-thirds of the flora of this favoured strip of country.

But this flora, so rich, so beautiful, and so abundant, is unhappily in a fair way to lose its chief attractions, owing to the ravages of our winter visitors, especially the plant collectors and botanists. It is almost impossible to enumerate the number of species which have either become rare or entirely disappeared during the last few years, owing to this mania for "collecting." *

Besides the Dwarf Palm and the Peony, once so common in the neighbourhood of Nice, but which now are nothing but memories, the beautiful *Tulipa clusiana* is becoming rare, even in the vicinity of Bordighera, and has already disappeared from the fields and woods around Nice and Mentone; the magnificent *Pancratium maritimum*, which once covered the sandhills of this neighbourhood, no longer exists on our coast, save in isolated tufts; and our liliaceous plants, our orchids, and even our anemones, the *stellata* and the *pavonina* especially, are becoming more and more difficult to discover.

This rapid extermination of rare and beautiful wild flowers, which one cannot sufficiently deplore, is mainly

* This selfish custom, and the result which follows, is not, alas, peculiar to the Riviera. The vicar of a country parish in North Devon tells me that the rare and beautiful ferns, which were formerly found in every lane, are either gone or fast disappearing, from exactly a similar cause. During the months of July and August the visitors to the neighbouring town (a fashionable watering place) sweep the lanes and woods of the district like locusts, and with the same result.—A. C. D.

due to the habit of those seeking flowers of pulling them up by the roots. By all means pluck the flowers which adorn our woods and fields: you have every right to do so, for it is for you they open their gorgeous blossoms; but in the name of that consideration which each of us owes to his neighbour, respect the roots which do not belong to you. Do not wantonly destroy that which is useless to yourself, but is one of the chief attractions possessed by Liguria in the eyes of all lovers of Nature.

But if the botanist is filled with wonder and delight by the richness of the Ligurian flora, the agriculturist of the north, who comes for the first time to our coast, is no less struck by the manner in which the cultivation of the soil is carried on.

The division of the land into extensive farms, with large ploughed fields, protected from the north wind by thick hedges and copses, so characteristic of the landscape of Great Britain, gives place in Liguria to forests of olive woods (which deck the hills with a mantle of greyish green), and to groves of lemon and orange trees.

In the market gardens, too, the same difference may be noticed: the tomato, the egg plant, the gourd, the prickly artichoke, take to a great extent the place of the familiar vegetables of the north; whilst the dog mercury, the capuchin arum, several peculiar sedges, the narcissus and the wild garlics over-run and choke our crops, instead of the groundsel, the dock, and the nettle.

The peculiar fruit and vegetables which characterise the gardens of the Mediterranean region in autumn, and the abundance of certain flowering plants difficult to cultivate in the north, but which grow like weeds on this coast, frequently mislead visitors into the idea that gardening

must be child's play in so fine a climate. This is, however, a serious mistake.

The coast of the gulfs of Genoa and Lyons in general, and the neighbourhood of Bordighera in particular, are certainly exempt from the late frosts and rainy summers which often render horticulture so unsatisfactory in the north; but the southern gardener has to contend with other and by no means less serious difficulties, first and foremost among which stand the burning sun and the dry summer. Continual and often expensive watering is necessary; and this combination of sun and water has naturally the effect of pushing vegetation on too rapidly. All plants show a tendency to flower and go to seed before they have attained the development necessary to insure an abundant crop.

This is especially true of those annual vegetables which belong properly to northern countries, such as all the varieties of cabbage and cauliflower, the pea, bean, &c. These are cultivated in Liguria under difficulties just as great, only of a different kind, as those which attend the raising of the tomato, the custard apple, and other southern delicacies in northern climates. Perennials, such as the artichoke, asparagus, &c., do better, on account of the advantage afforded by their permanent root-stocks; but vegetables of both these classes can be obtained (with the exception of the French bean), only in winter and early spring.

The summer vegetables which are peculiar to the south, such as the tomato, the *aubergine* or egg-plant, and the numerous varieties of custard-apple and pumpkin, grow luxuriantly and produce abundantly where well watered,

but are nevertheless subject to many mishaps, the most dangerous of which is exposure to the burning sun when wet. Hence it is necessary, for the tomato especially, to irrigate the plants by conducting the water to their roots in rivulets, with the greatest care not to wet the stems or leaves. Rain in summer is extremely prejudicial on this account. I have known whole crops of the tomato destroyed in half-an-hour by a thunder shower on a hot day in June.

The fruit of Liguria may be enumerated as follows: The vine, which, however, and probably on account of the vicinity of the sea, does not thrive as well as in the inland provinces; the peach, which thrives to perfection and may be reckoned the finest fruit of the country, although winter visitors never see it to advantage, as the best varieties ripen in August. The cherry bears freely; the apricot and the plum more sparingly; apples are a failure, the drought causing the fruit to fall before maturity; pears, the winter varieties especially, do fairly. The Japan medlar (*Mespilus japonica*), introduced some thirty years ago, now grows like an indigenous tree all over the South of Europe, and its juicy fruit are highly appreciated in June. But the really characteristic fruit of Liguria, after the orange tribe mentioned further on, is the fig, the endless varieties of which, fresh in autumn, dried in winter, form a staple article of food for the lower classes. Small fruit, such as the strawberry, raspberry, currants, &c., are difficult to cultivate except in shady valleys.

Flower gardening is subject to the same difficulties as the cultivation of vegetables. Many of the familiar herbaceous flowering plants of northern gardens will not

grow at all, and those that will, go to seed with despairing rapidity. A few annuals, such as *Escholtzia californica*, *Linum grandiflorum*, *Malcolmia maritima*, and some others, if sown in September, will make a good show in March and April, but they are inevitably burnt up by the sun of May and June. Indeed, from the middle of June to the beginning of September, planting and sowing is next to impossible, the most a gardener can do being to keep his plants alive by abundant watering.

The operation of "bedding out," with geraniums and verbenas so familiar to northern horticulturists, is impracticable in this climate. The geranium of all varieties grows like a weed, and the plants attain an enormous size. The verbena flowers freely, but however richly coloured be the varieties planted, they will inevitably return under the action of the sun, and sometimes even during the first summer, to the original pink of the wild flower. The verbena is also extremely sensitive to water on the leaves, a shower followed by hot sunshine being generally fatal to the plants.

The anemone and its congeners, and all liliaceous plants thrive and flower freely, but they degenerate rapidly.

The reader will easily gather from what precedes, that between the constant care and watering and the frequent renewal of plants necessary to insure a show of flowers, anything like an attempt at high-class gardening becomes an expensive undertaking. Hence it follows that proprietors of moderate means, or who do not care to take much trouble with their gardens, should limit their attention principally to flowering shrubs and herbaceous perennials, especially those introduced from Japan, Polynesia, South Africa, Mexico, and other intermediate

climates. These give but little trouble, and if well disposed will produce a fine sub-tropical effect.

Those who wish to study in detail the very interesting flora of this coast, will find a large number of excellent works to aid them, of which I may especially mention the *Flore Française* of MM. Gilly and Magne, and the *Flore des Alpes Maritimes* of M. H. Ardoino of Mentone. I will therefore only place before my readers a list, with a few remarks subjoined, of the plants, wild and cultivated, which I think likely to interest the majority of our winter visitors. But this list does not by any means claim to be a complete catalogue of the flora of the district; it is merely a *résumé*, and a very simple and condensed one, of those flowers which the botanist and pedestrian may not only look for, but hope to find.

Ranunculaceæ, the Ranunculus Family.

This beautiful family, the varied character of which has caused it to be placed at the head of the vegetable series, is nowhere more richly represented than in the south of Europe.

However, the true *ranunculi* or Meadow Buttercups offer no point of interest in this neighbourhood.

Seventeen different species are found; they abound in the marshy fields near the mouths of the torrents, the *Ranunculus bulbosus* or Bulbous Crowfoot being the commonest.

Adonis æstivalis, Pheasant's Eye.

This little flower is only remarkable for the brilliant scarlet of its petals, its extremely finely lanceolate leaves, which are marked like a finely plaited thong, and for its

being one of the rare flowers to be found during the height of summer.

Clematis vitalba,* Old Man's Beard.
„ *flammula.*

These two species of the *Clematis* are common; the former abounds in the hedges and amongst the brushwood in shady places, and the latter on the rocks and cliffs. This last has a fragrant scent. May and June.

Anemone coronaria.
„ *cyanea.*
„ *pavonina.*
„ *hortensis.*
„ *stellata.*

The anemones are one of the glories of our southern flora; they flower from January to March. I have noticed five species, although most writers on this subject reduce them to four. The *A. cyanea* is generally considered a variety of the *A. coronaria*, but the distinctive characteristics are constant, and the two species never mingle. The four first abound in our neighbourhood, but the *hortensis*, though common in the environs of Nice, is rare east of Monaco. The *A. alpina*, var. *sulfurea*, abounds on the mountain pastures above a height of 3000 feet, and blossoms in May. The *A. stellata* is only met with in the valley of the Nervia.

Hepatica triloba, Blue Hepatica.

The blue variety only, and that rare.

* This will be most familiar to English readers as the "wild clematis."—A. C. D.

Helleborus niger, Christmas Rose.
„ *fœtidus*, Bear's-foot.

The *H. niger* or Christmas Rose was formerly found in the neighbourhood of Nice; the *H. fœtidus* or "Fetid Hellebore," of classic memory, is common in the beds of torrents: flower in winter.

Nigella damascena, Love in a Mist, or Devil in a Bush.

This plant, remarkable for the curious shape of its blossom, resembles the allspice in its cultivated state: it flowers in June, on cultivated ground.

Aconitum Napellus, Common Monkshood.
„ *paniculatum.*
„ *anthora.*
„ *lycoctonum.*

The Aconites do not form part of the coast flora, but those visitors remaining well into the summer, to July, and making excursions high up in the Apennines, will find the four species I have enumerated.

Pæonia officinalis, Common Peony.

The peony grew formerly in the neighbourhood of Nice, and is probably now found in our secluded valleys: flower in summer.

PAPAVERACEÆ, the Poppy Family.

Papaver rhœas, Common Poppy.

In ploughed land: May and June.

Papaver setigerum.

This beautiful species, whose large violet-tinted flowers give it a resemblance to the oriental poppy (*P. somni-*

ferum), has not been noticed in the immediate neighbourhood of Bordighera, but it is common on other points of the coast, especially at Hyères and Alassio.

Glaucium luteum, Yellow-horned Poppy.

One of the most beautiful flowers of the seacoast, recalling the *Escholtzia* of the English gardens: spring and autumn.

Fumariaceæ, the Fumitory Family.

Fumaria spicata, Spiked Fumitory.

The fumitories, to the number of seven or eight species, infest the fields under cultivation, and choke the crops.

The species mentioned above is one of the finest, and is peculiar to the south.

Cruciferæ, the Crucifer Family.

Matthiola tricuspidata, Sea Stock.

A pretty gilly-flower, with lilac blossoms and a fragrant smell: is found on the sands and beach in the summer.

Alyssum maritimum, Sweet Alyssum.

A pretty little sweet-smelling plant, with white blossoms; it is found everywhere under the olive-wood, and throughout almost the whole of the year.

Capparideæ, the Caper Family.

Capparis spinosa, Common Caper.

The Caper plant is not a native of Europe; it has been brought from the East, like so many of the alimentary plants, probably on the return from the Crusades. It is cultivated throughout the whole of the south, for the sake of the capers, which are the flower-buds preserved in vinegar. It is naturalised all over Liguria, but is not found in any abundance except in the district of Roquebrune, between Monaco and Mentone, where the lofty walls are covered with its beautiful tufts. The flower is remarkable for the exceptional length of the stamens.

The Cistus Family.

Cistus albidus, Pink-leaved Cistus.
„ *salvifolius*, Sage-leaved Cistus.

A dozen varieties of the Cistus family are included in the flora of the Riviera, but the two indicated above are the only ones which are found to any extent in our neighbourhood. The *C. albidus*, or Pink Cistus, with its purple-pink flowers, grows upon the barren hillsides, flowering in May; the *C. salvifolius*, or White Cistus, covers the beds of the torrents in June, with its milk-white blossoms.

Violaceæ, the Violet Family.

Viola odorata, Sweet Violet.

Is it necessary to describe the Violet, which carpets the moist places under the olives, and scents the air with its sweet perfume as early as December? The variety with double blossoms (known as the *Parma Violet*) is cultivated for perfumery by some of the proprietors of Bordighera. The Yellow Violet (*Viola lutea*), is common in the higher valleys of the Apennines.

RESEDACEÆ, Mignonettes.

Reseda phyteuma.
„ *alba.*

The first of these species resembles the garden Mignonette in all except the scent; the second differs considerably, and the flower is slightly fragrant.

CARYOPHYLLACEÆ, the Pink Family.

Silene inflata, Bladder Campion.
„ *italica.*

These two species abound in all our valleys, but the flora of our coast contains no less than twenty-two.

Dianthus carthusianorum.

A dozen species of Wild Pink flourish almost all the year round on the barren hills.

Saponaria ocymoides, Soap-wort.

This pretty Soap-wort is rare in the neighbourhood, but it abounds at Alassio and Nice.

LINACEÆ, the Flax Family.

Linum gallicum.

The Wild Flax, of which there are about twelve species on this coast, do not call for any especial remark; I have, however, mentioned the *Linum gallicum*, which abounds in the neighbourhood, as it is considered one of the rarest of French flora.

MALVACEÆ, the Mallow Family.

Lavatera cretica.

This beautiful mallow covers the ground under the olives with its pretty pink blossoms, during the height of the summer.

HESPERIDEÆ, the Citron Family.

Citrus vulgaris, Bitter Orange-tree.
„ *aurantium*, Common „
„ *myrtifolia*, Mandarin „
„ *sinensis*, Chinese „
„ *limonium*, Lemon-tree.
„ *limetta*, Bergamot.
„ *medica*, Citron-tree.

The orange has been cultivated from the very earliest times. The three daughters of Atlas and Hesperis had a beautiful garden in Mauritania full of golden apples, placed under the guardianship of a dragon with a hundred heads. Hercules, by the order of Eurystheus, king of Argos, journeyed to the garden of the Hesperides, killed the dragon and carried the golden apples back to Greece.

This classic myth is interesting as showing how highly this fruit was prized even in the earliest times.

In more modern days, the Portuguese appear to have brought it from India or China, and from this cause it is now not unfrequently called *Portogallo* in many of the Italian provinces, whilst the extract which is distilled from the peel in France is even yet known as *Essence de Portugal.*

From the Iberian peninsula it spread quickly to Italy:

that is, to the two Sicilies and Liguria, and the merchant princes of Genoa were the first to adorn their gardens with its golden fruit. There was, however, one solitary orange-tree in France in the year 1500, which had been brought from Pampeluna, the capital of Navarre; it is still living in the orangery at Versailles, where it takes the highest rank for its size and beauty under the name of the *Grand connétable de Bourbon.* Since that date orangeries have become very numerous in the suburbs around Paris, where the most beautiful in the world are now to be found, amongst which may be mentioned those of Ferrières and Versailles.

The beauty of the orange-tree, the delicacy of its foliage, the grace and sweetness of its flowers, the perfume and beneficent qualities of its fruit, cause it to be one of the most valuable as well as one of the most beautiful of the floral ornaments of our globe.

The orange-tree has some very distinct varieties: we may mention the *Blood,* or *Maltese orange,* so called from the fact that its juice is of the colour of blood: and also one which is known in Italy under the name of *Arancio di Lecce,* which has the peculiarity that the oranges are sweet even when they are still green. This variety, though little cultivated at present, has the advantage of giving us very early oranges. But the most remarkable variety, however, of this superb tree, is without doubt that of the Mandarin; its shape, its foliage, its blossoms and its fruit are all smaller than its congeners, but the precocity of this variety (which ripens about the commencement of the autumn), its sweetness, its delicacy, and the ease with which its peel can be removed, which again has even a sweeter scent than that of the common orange, causes its

cultivation to be a very profitable business. The Mandarin was originally brought by the English from China, where it was only cultivated in the gardens of the great dignitaries of that vast empire. The first attempt at cultivation took place at Malta and resulted in a great success, whilst in Sicily it will before long become one of the most important horticultural industries in the island.

However, even in 1848, this fruit was far from common in Europe: it was only at the chief fruiterers in Paris and London, and at an extremely high price, that it was to be obtained.

About this time a horticulturist of Marseilles imported some plants of this beautiful tree, one of which was brought to Bordighera, from which place it passed to San Remo, to Ventimiglia, and finally to Nice. In our own locality there are several gardens where it is especially and scientifically cultivated, and where it has attained a height of over 12 feet, and bears not less than 1000 oranges. It is however necessary, in order to produce thoroughly satisfactory results and crops of a first-rate quality, to have considerable depth of soil, plenty of light and air—indeed, full exposure to the sun is most necessary, and above all plenty of water during the extreme heat of the summer. We may add also, that perhaps there is no place in Europe where the orange-tree flourishes more satisfactorily than at Bordighera, the neighbourhood of which requires but little to transform it into a veritable garden of Hesperides, where the happy Eurystheus of the present day could pluck these luscious fruits, inhale their sweet perfume, or even raise a glorious palace surrounded by trees laden with their golden burden. It is impossible for us to urge too strongly upon proprietors in this beau-

tiful country the cultivation of the common orange-tree or some of its rarer varieties, and we trust that each year a larger area of land may be devoted to this purpose.

The stranger first arriving amongst us in the month of November and December, having left behind him regions already enveloped in ice and snow, finds indeed a surprise in store for him, as, brought out perchance by a through carriage from Calais, he first sees, as if raised by Aladdin's lamp, these groves of golden fruit.

The common Orange-tree will bear an amount of cold equal to about 28° to 29° Fahr; but the fruit of the mandarin is far more sensitive of frost, though even they have never suffered in this climate.

The Lemon-tree is not only more delicate, but at the same time gives larger profits than the orange; it is this reason which causes the former to be cultivated more generally, and also with much greater care, than the latter; it is also without doubt, after the olive, and because of the importance of its produce, the most interesting tree under cultivation in this part of the Riviera of Genoa, which extends from Monaco to Mentone, from Ventimiglia to Bordighera, and as far as San Remo and its neighbourhood.

There are also some other parts of Liguria where this beautiful plant is cultivated, but only as a wall-fruit, or if in other ways, it is in certain spots especially sheltered by the formation of the coast or otherwise. This is the case both at Nice and Cannes.

In his '*Voyage aux Alpes Maritimes*,' Fodéré states the fact, and adds:—"The reason of this is that the winter is milder not only at Mentone and San Remo, but also at

the other places where the lemon-tree is grown in the open country."

The portion of the coast where this especially mild climate prevails is a strip of about twenty-five miles, extending from Monaco to San Remo, of which Bordighera is the centre, and it might fitly be called the "home of the lemon-tree." It is there only that it is cultivated to any great extent, and completely resists even the most rigorous winters.

For, of all the varieties of this noble family (*Aurantiaceæ*), the lemon-tree is by far the most delicate; it is this which shudders most at the sudden variations of temperature and at the icy winds which blow down from the mountains after the cold rains of winter, and the slightest frost, in certain cases, may even prove fatal to it. It is necessary then, in order that it should be a success, to have three things: (1) a *warm* and (2) *even climate*, and (3) a *sheltered situation*. Where, then, are such conditions most perfectly to be found? Surely nowhere, if not at Bordighera, the whole neighbourhood of which is specially suited for such a purpose. The hills, which the want of water has hitherto prevented from being brought into cultivation, offer the most favourable sites, and the experiments of some years past have proved conclusively that the fruit there grown is even finer than usual. Our mountain, *Montenero*, is also capable, to a great extent, of being covered with lemon-trees.

On the western side of this noble mountain, on a hill adjoining, one of our ablest agriculturists has followed the example of the Spanish Moors, and dammed a rushing torrent with a solid dyke of masonry, which not only pre-

serves the low-lying lands from inundations, but also, by retaining a portion of the water, has enabled him to turn his pine woods into lemon-groves. Already the acres so planted give him a first-rate profit, and each year he increases the area under cultivation.

The Lemon-tree, originally a native of India, was introduced into Europe during the Crusades, and is divided into two distinct varieties, the *Serieschi* and the *Bignete*; the fruit of the latter having a much thinner skin and larger amount of juice than the former. This tree, the most remarkable in the world, has this striking peculiarity, that it bears fruit continuously; and this is the cause of its extreme sensitiveness to the slightest frost. It is possible to count on a well-cultivated tree eight, ten, or even twelve successive crops of fruit. At first the little buds show themselves at the joints of the leaves, like the tips of a violet rose; then the larger buds appear, which only require a few of those warm days, so numerous with us in the winter, to open out and fill the air with a perfume, which is the more acceptable as the sweet-scented flowers are rare at that season.

For, apart from the fact that the lemon is one of the most profitable of fruits, and returns the largest crops in our district, the tree itself would be grown because of its extraordinary fecundity, which presents to us the appearance of a perpetual spring; a continual succession of fruit appearing on its branches, from those as small as an olive to the very largest kind, whose yellow jackets tell us they have arrived at ripeness and maturity.

The lemons are classed under five or six varieties:—(1) the *graniti*, which are gathered in the spring; (2) the *verdami*, or summer lemons; (3) the *primifiori*, which

are plucked in the autumn; (4) the *autunni*, with their thick peel, which, when they have arrived at full maturity, are great favourites, being eaten with a knife like apples; the young girls of the district having an especial fondness for them. As a rule, the lemon-tree has even a fifth quality of fruit, which is known as the *testasse*, but this is generally considered a bastard fruit, whilst some produce yet a sixth variety, which goes by the name of the *maraviglie*, and takes the most peculiar shapes; this is owing to the wounds which the lemons receive from insects when just emerging from the flower.

In Corsica, Naples, and above all in Sicily, the lemon is much cultivated, but in those countries the trees produce but one crop during the season, which, commencing in September, ends in March. For the remainder of the year, that is, during the whole of the spring and summer, there is no sign of fruit whatever. It is only in Liguria, where the climate is more equable, the winters milder, the summers less parching, that we see the lemon-tree always loaded with fruit. Experience also has shown that lemons from this district are better suited for a long voyage than any others, especially for exportation to the United States, where our fruit is always considered the finest which enters their markets.*

Oxalidaceæ, the Wood Sorrels.

Oxalis corniculata, Yellow-wood Sorrel.
„ *lybica*, African Sorrel.

The Yellow-wood Sorrel (*O. corniculata*) is very common on every side; the other species, which originally came

* This paper is a reproduction of an anonymous article which appeared in the *Voce di Bordighera* on June 13th and July 1st, 1875.

from South Africa, has a much larger flower. In the present day it grows spontaneously over the whole of Liguria.

Rhamnaceæ, the Buckthorns.

Rhamnus alaternus.

One of the commonest shrubs in these parts; it grows wild in the shady valleys and is remarkable for its bunches of red fruit, which turn black as they become ripe.

Terebinthaceæ.

Pistacia lentiscum, the Mastic Tree.
„ *terebinthus.*
„ *vera*, the Pistachio Tree.

The Lentisk covers the barren hills with its pretty bushes. Owing to certain strengthening properties which the wood of this tree was supposed to possess, it was used in ancient times for the manufacture of tooth-picks.*

> "Lentiscum melius,
> sed si tibi frondea cuspis defuerit
> dentes penna levare potest."

The Terebinth is one of the finest forest trees of Asia Minor, and although it is not found in Europe larger than a stunted shrub, we may naturally expect that it would be mentioned in Scripture, and so it is, although only in the Old Testament. The Hebrew word *alah*, which undoubtedly designates this tree, since the Septuagint uniformly renders it by τερέβινθος, appears to have puzzled the early translators of the Bible, and not being acquainted with the tree, as it does not belong to the flora of Northern

* The celebrated lentisk tree in Signor Adolfo Garibaldi's garden is well worth a visit.—A. C. D.

Europe, they use, apparently at random, a variety of words. Thus, in the authorised English version, it is rendered *oak* in Gen. xxxv. 4; *teil* in Isaiah vi. 13; *elm* in Hosea iv. 13.

The Pistachio is cultivated as a fruit-tree in many gardens at Nice.

Papilionaceæ or Leguminaceæ, the Pea-flower Family.

Ceratonia siliqua, the Locust Tree; Fr. *Caroubier.*

The Carouba or Locust Bean Tree came originally from the East, but it has been acclimatized throughout the whole of the Mediterranean coast. Its long beans, which have a sweet flavour, form an admirable food for horses. The tree is only cultivated on a large scale in the Levant, on the African coast, and in the island of Corsica, whence the locust beans are exported in large quantities. On this coast it has sprung up spontaneously at Eza and on the territory of Monaco, but Bordighera possesses only a few specimens of any size. According to a tradition preserved by the Eastern Church, the locust beans were the food of St. John the Baptist in the desert; from which the Germans give the tree the name of *Johanisbrodbaum.* If, however, this was the fact, it would be necessary to alter the word *locusts* into *locust beans* in the English version of the New Testament, and to change *sauterelles* in the French translations into *caroubes.* However, the word ἀκρίς which is used by the Evangelists, most clearly means *locusts*, whilst at the same time we know that the true name of the *Carouba* or *Locust-tree Bean*, κερατία, (which Linné has turned into *Ceratonia*), was familiar to them, as we find it used in Luke xv. 13, in the parable of

the Prodigal Son: "the *shells* or *husks* which the swine did eat." However, the word *ἀκρίς* which is derived from *ἄκρος, sharp, pointed,* may have been applied to the Locust on account of its angular members, and it is not impossible that for a similar reason, and in a country where Greek was but imperfectly known, the same word was employed to designate the *Locust* or *Carouba* Bean.

Spartium junceum, Spanish Broom.

This beautiful species, with rush-like branches, improperly called "Spanish Broom," abounds on all the burnt-up hills in the spring.

Genista Hispanica, Thorny Broom.

A small shrub, very thick and thorny, which grows in great quantities on the hills. Yellow flowers in the spring.

Cytisus sessilifolius.
„ *laburnum*, the Yellow Laburnum.

Several *Cytisi* are found in the shady and secluded valleys, but hardly ever near the shore.

Ononis ramosissima, the Rest Harrow.
„ *spinosa.*

Seven species of *Ononis* belong to the flora of this coast, but the two mentioned above are the only ones which exist in any numbers on the beach in this neighbourhood.

Psoralia bituminosa.

This handsome plant is very easily distinguished by its strong odour of bitumen; it is common under the olives and on the slopes of the railway embankments; flower in May.

Coronilla scorpioides.

A remarkable herbaceous species, but rare; May.

C. emerus.

Several sub-ligneous kinds are met along with *Cytisi* in the shady valleys in May.

Lathyrus latifolius, Everlasting Pea.
„ *setifolius.*

Two beautiful kinds, the former especially, with large flowers in terminal bunches, found amongst the olives in May.

ROSACEÆ, the Rose Family.

Agrimonia eupatoria, Agrimony.

Yellow flowers in one long vertical spike, found under the olives.

PUNICACEÆ, the Pomegranate Family.

Punica granatum, Pomegranate Tree; Fr. *Grenadier.*

It is generally believed that this tree, the modern French name of which so well describes the form of the fruit, was introduced into Italy from Africa by the Romans during the Punic wars, from whence may have arisen its Latin name. The Pomegranate is sufficiently hardy to withstand cold northern climates, but the fruit does but imperfectly ripen even on this coast.

MYRTACEÆ, the Myrtle Family.

Myrtus communis, Common Myrtle.

The myrtle is found along the whole of the Riviera and in all our valleys. It is in full bloom in May.

Eucalyptus globulus, the Blue Gum Tree.

The Blue Gum Tree of Australia, introduced into Europe about twenty years ago, is at the present day, of all purely ornamental trees, the one which is most generally found in these parts. Its graceful shape, its peculiar leaf and strong scent, and the extraordinary rapidity of its growth, have made its adoption universal by those who are anxious, in as short a time as possible, to obtain plantations of full-grown trees. But in taking a just account of this interesting tree, we must not fail to recognise its faults. The Blue Gum is singularly greedy, particularly of water, which its wide-spreading roots absorb in enormous quantities, exhausting the soil and rendering difficult the cultivation of anything around it, and its presence in our gardens causes all sorts of inconveniences, but the very strong camphor perfume thrown out by its leaves, and the extraordinary property of absorption its roots possess, make it nevertheless a valuable instrument in draining marsh lands,* whilst a preparation from its leaves has been used

* Those who take an interest in the reclamation of waste lands, and better still, in seeing a whole district, for centuries deserted by man, once more rendered healthy and habitable, might do worse than visit the monastery, farms and gardens of the Trappists, at the Tre Fontana, about four miles from Rome. Here they will see what marvels this tree, wisely and extensively cultivated, is capable of performing. The convent, long deserted, was given by the Pope Pius IX. to some French Trappists in 1868, who began by spending the winter in their new home, bringing it into repair, and planting hundreds, nay thousands, of the *E. globulus*, but returning to Rome when the summer heats began. This went on for three or four years, until the trees were sufficiently grown to enable the monks to venture on remaining the summer; fortifying themselves for this ordeal by taking daily a certain quantity of the preparation referred to. When visited by the present writer in 1876, the monks had been settled there for some years, cases of fever were rare, and never fatal, a large number of acres had been reclaimed and were under cultivation, the farm labourers were returning, and living, like the

with considerable effect in cases of malaria fever. The wood, which is greatly valued in Australia for its toughness and durability, has not, however, up to the present time, been found to possess the same characteristics in Europe; neither will it serve for fuel, as it is nearly incombustible. The want of appreciation which it has so far experienced in this continent may perhaps be explained by the fact, that the *E. globulus* is not the species which is most thought of in its native country: in addition to which, to obtain wood really tough and hard, even in Australia, it is necessary for the trees to be of great age.

The genus *Eucalyptus* contains a large number of species. Thirty at least have been tried during the last few years on the Riviera, but the only one which appears to merit serious attention from amateur gardeners is the *Eucalyptus tremula*, the foliage and beautiful shape of which, somewhat resembling the birch-tree of the North of Europe, have given it a prominent place among the ornamental trees suitable to our coast.

CUCURBITACEÆ, the Cucumber Family.

Ecabalium elaterium, Squirting Cucumber; Fr. *Momordique.*

The Squirting Cucumber affects chiefly the cultivated land, not very far from the shore. The fruit from two to three inches long falls when perfectly ripe, throwing its seed with great force to a considerable distance on every side.

Trappists, on the spot, who were still hard at work rearing and planting the eucalyptus. There was this beneficent shrub in the large convent garden, in rows and rows, in thousands of every size, from those a few inches high in pots, just springing up from seed, to those 5 or 6 feet high, ready for planting in those fields even yet a prey to the once all-powerful malaria.—A. C. D.

TAMARICACEÆ, the Tamarisk Family.

Tamarix Africana, Tamarisk.

The African Tamarisk abounds on the sand-hills of the sea-shore; its shape is that of a straggling bush.

CRASSULACEÆ, the Stone-Crop Family.

Sedum reflexum.

The most remarkable of twenty species of the genus and one of the most beautiful flowers of midsummer.

UMBELLIFERÆ, the Umbelliferous Family.

Crithmum maritimum, St. Peter's Herb, or Samphire.

A thick juicy plant which grows on the rocks of the sea-shore; the leaves are edible and resemble in taste the Angelica (*Angelica sylvestris*).

Eryngium maritimum, Sea Holly.

One of the most remarkable of the plants growing on the sea-shore; leaves outspread and thorny; flowers prickly and of a pinkish white colour. Blossoms in June.

CAPRIFOLIACEÆ, the Woodbine or Honeysuckle Family.

Lonicera implexa.

This beautiful species, which is in every respect a much handsomer and larger plant than the ordinary honeysuckle (*Lonicera periclymenum*) of North Europe, abounds on the uncultivated land in May.

RUBIACEÆ, the Madder Family.

Galium litigiosum.

Many varieties of bedstraw overrun the cultivated land on all sides; the *G. litigiosum* is peculiar to the south.

VALERIANACEÆ, the Valerian Family.

Centranthus rubra, Red Valerian.

Abounds on old walls, and is remarkable for its beautiful red flowers in a terminal corymb; found nearly all the year round.

COMPOSITÆ, the Composite Family.

Tyrimnus leucographus.

The most remarkable of the southern thistles. This gigantic weed is common on all wild or waste lands in June.

Calendula arvensis, Wild Marigold.

The Wild Marigold is found in great numbers in May on the ploughed fields.

Inula viscosa.

A sticky plant with strong aromatic perfume, found on the bare hills in June; mentioned by Dr. Antonio as a defence against mosquitoes and flies.

Helichrysum Stœchas, Wild Immortelle.

The Wild Immortelle covers all our hills in May with its sweet yellow flowers; its leaves of a whitish tone have a strong perfume.

Diotis candidissima.

A pretty little white flower found on the sea-shore in July, but rare.

Chrysanthemum segetum, the Corn Marigold.

This beautiful species does not appear originally to have belonged to our flora; but is found at the present time in great quantities on the railway embankments between Bordighera and Ventimiglia, its seeds having probably been brought in the ballast used for making them.

Cineraria maritima, Wild Cineraria.

The Wild Cineraria is not found in our immediate neighbourhood, but it covers the rocks on the sea-coast east of San Remo with its great tufts in the month of July.

Bellis sylvestris, the Wood Daisy.

This variety has large flowers, reddish on the outside, and must not be confused with the common daisy (*B. perennis*). It is only met with under the olive woods on the plain and in the valleys; autumn.

Scolymus maculatus.

One of the finest flowers of the beach, resembling a yellow thistle.

Urospermum Dalechampii.

A large yellow flower, having its ligulate flowerets tipped with brown; found in the fields and meadows in June.

Arnica montana.

The Mountain or Common Arnica. This is common on the mountains, close to the line of perpetual snow; found in the summer.

Tussilago farfara, Yellow Coltsfoot; Fr. *Pas d'âne.*

The Coltsfoot, one may say, is the first flower of spring; it appears in the torrent beds in January.

Leontopodium alpinum, Edelweiss; Fr. *Pied de Lion.*

The Edelweiss, the discovery of which gives such delight to Alpine travellers, is very rare in our mountains. It has, however, been found on the Col di Tenda and on some of the heights of the valley of the Vésubie.

ERICACEÆ, the Heath Family.

Erica arborea, Large Heath, or Mediterranean Heath.

Grows abundantly on Monte Nero in March.

Arbutus unedo, Strawberry Tree, or Red Arbutus.

Found also on Monte Nero; two other species, the *A. alpina* or Alpine Bear-berry and the *Uva-ursi* or Common Bear-berry, exist amongst the mountains.

Rhododendron ferrugineum.

This is often, but wrongly, called the Alpine Rose. Found on the north slope of the Alps in June.

APOCYNACEÆ, the Periwinkle Family.

Nerium oleander, Oleander; Fr. *Laurier rose.*

Abounds in the beds of the torrents, in that of the Nervia especially. The variety with white blossoms is found upon the hill of the *Madonna della Guardia*, to the east of San Remo.

Vinca acutiflora, Periwinkle; Fr. *Pervenche.*

This is the only one of the three species of the genus which grows at Bordighera, and it is only found in any

quantity on one spot: the valley of the *Fontana Vecchia* and its immediate neighbourhood.

Jasminaceæ, the Jasmine Family.

Olea Europœa, the Olive-tree.

The Olive-tree has been known from the most remote times. We read in the Old Testament, how the dove, after it had been set at liberty by Noah during the deluge, returned to the ark, bearing a branch of the olive-tree in its beak, and many have attributed to this charming incident the adoption of this tree as the symbol of peace by all the peoples of antiquity:

"Paciferæque manu ramum protendit olivæ."

According to some authorities, Cecrops brought the olive from Egypt to Greece about the year 1580 B.C.; according to others, Hercules, on his return from one of his expeditions, planted it upon Mount Olympus. What is most probable, however, is that it was introduced by the Phocaeans to these parts about the year 600 B.C. Pliny states that at the time of Tarquin the Elder, there were none to be found either on the African coast or in Europe.

The Olive blossoms in the spring, and its fruits ripen during the winter; the olives are sharp and bitter to the taste; the oil from them, which is known all over the world, is obtained by crushing them in powerful presses.

The traveller journeying towards the south of Europe first meets them in the neighbourhood of Marseilles, but they are few and far between and of small size. The real olive woods, containing trees which have stood

for centuries, are to be found in the neighbourhood of Cannes, to the eastward of the Estérel Mountains, and they stretch away to the cold plains of the Serchio and the Arno in Tuscany. There is no district along the Riviera where this tree is more extensively cultivated, than in the neighbourhood of Bordighera; but the visitor must not conclude from the immense number of trees which he sees on every side, that its culture is a source of wealth to those countries which possess it.

On the slopes of the hills, where the lemon, orange, and other valuable plants will not grow, owing to the difficulty or impossibility of obtaining a sufficient supply of water, the cultivation of the olive may still be a profitable investment; but in the flat parts, especially over the whole area of the extensive plain which stretches from Bordighera up to the Nervia, anything else, whether it be wheat, or Italian rye-grass, or vegetables, would give infinitely more remunerative results.

During the long wars of the first Empire, a strict blockade prevented the oils of the Levant from entering the French markets; consequently, olive oil rose to an exorbitant price, and the inhabitants of Liguria (that province having been annexed to France) were led to plant these trees in great quantities.

But the exaggerated rates of bygone days are no longer maintained; * whilst at the same time, the increased

* There is another reason also, I think, for the decreased demand for these oils and the consequent fall in price, viz. the discovery and extraordinary popularity of the mineral oils of America, which, for the purposes of illumination and owing to their wonderful cheapness, have practically driven the olive oil from the market. There is hardly a cottage in England, not to mention great part of Europe, in which the lamp is not now fed by petroleum, or one of its sister oils.—A. C. D.

dryness which has characterised the past decades (produced, no doubt, by the reckless way the woods and mountain forests have been cut down), has caused a partial failure of the crops; for the olive needs great quantities of water, and since it has failed to obtain it, its crops have become smaller and smaller.

The produce of an olive-tree varies enormously, according to the size of the tree, the manner of its cultivation, and its position.

Left to itself, unpruned and unmanured, its produce gradually dwindles until it reaches zero. On the other hand, when it is carefully pruned from infancy, watered abundantly, and well manured with substances strongly impregnate with azote and especially horny matter, such as woollen rags, a fine tree ought to give about 44 lbs. of oil, or in other words, a net profit of about 30 francs.

During the whole of the winter the peasants employ themselves in picking up the ripe olives which fall beneath the trees, and as spring draws to an end they beat the branches with long canes, to bring down all those which have not already fallen.

The operation of extracting the oil is effected by *two* distinct processes; first of all, the olives are crushed in a *frantoio*, that is, a mill-stone revolving on its edge round a vertical axis. From thence the olives are carried to a powerful press, the flow of oil from which is often hastened by the help of warm water; this, however, does not improve the quality of the oil. The dregs which are left behind then undergo a further process; the oil resulting from which goes by the name of *ressanse*.

Gentianaceæ, the Gentian Family.

Chlora acuminata, Yellow Wort; Fr. *Chlorette.*
Erythræa centaurium, Common Centaury.

The species mentioned above are the only two members of the Gentian family which are found in our valleys; the true gentians are only to be met on mountains of a considerable height.

Polygalaceæ, the Milkwort Family.

Polygala comosa.
„ *nicæensis.*

Seven species of the pretty Milkwort family are found amongst our flora; but the *P. comosa* with its pink flowers, and the *nicæensis* with its blue, are the only ones which exist in any abundance in the neighbourhood.

Convolvulaceæ, the Bindweed Family.

Convolvulus sepium, Large Bindweed.
„ *cantabrica.*

The Large Bindweed, white with flowers, abounds in our valleys; the Biscayan Bindweed (*cantabrica*), with pink flowers and prostrate stem, affects the dried-up hills: it is found in May.

Boraginaceæ, the Borage Family.

Cerinthe aspera, *Fr. Mélinet.*

This is somewhat rare, but is found in the valley of Borghetto, also at Ospedaletti in the month of April.

Anchusa italica, Bugloss, or Venus' Looking-glass.

It abounds near the sea in April.

Lithospermum purpureo-cœruleum, The Millet.

This flower, called by the French *Grémil*, is one of the most beautiful of flowers of the south; it is found in March, and especially under the olives.

Orobanchaceæ, the Broom-rape Family.

Phelipœa lavandulacea.
„ *mutsli.*
Orobanche epithymum.
„ *concolor.*
„ *speciosa.*

No less than twenty species of this singular family are found in this neighbourhood, mainly in April.

Labiateæ, the Labiate Family.

Lavandula officinalis, Common Lavender.
„ *stœchas.*

The latter a fine variety, but almost without perfume; found on Monte Nero in March.

Verbenaceæ, the Verbena Family.

Vitex agnus-castus, *Fr. Gattilier.*

One of the prettiest shrubs in the country, especially in the height of the summer, when it is covered with beautiful blue flowers, in terminal spikes; flowers in the valleys in July.

Globulariaceæ, the Globulary Family.

Globularia vulgaris.

The *Globularias* are found upon the sunburnt hills,

which they brighten up the whole of winter with their pretty blue flowers.

Phytolaccæ.

Phytolacca decandra.

Originally from America, but at the present day naturalised over the whole of the south of Europe; remarkable for its bunches of black fruit; rather rare.

Euphorbiaceæ, the Spruce Family.

Euphorbia dendroides.

No less than twenty-nine species of this family belong to the flora of the coast. The *E. dendroides*, the only ligneous one, is very common, but only eastward of the French frontier.

Coniferæ, the Coniferous Family.

Larix europœa, Common Larch.
Pinus Cembro.
„ *sylvestris*, Sylvester Pine.
Abies pectinata, Scotch Fir.
„ *excelsa*, Spruce Fir.

These five species form the forests of the Alps; they are met with in the following order: above 4000 feet the larch (*Europœa*) and the *P. Cembro*; below these, the Spruce Fir (*P. excelsa*) and the Scotch Fir, and finally, near the coast, the Sylvester Pine (*P. sylvestris*).

Pinus maritima, Cluster Pine.
„ *halepensis*, Aleppo Pine.
„ *pinea*, Umbrella Pine.

The Cluster Pine and the Aleppo Pine compose the woods on the lower or secondary range of mountains, but

the *P. Pinea* is found in any considerable numbers only in the neighbourhood of Cannes.

Liliaceæ, the Lily Family.

Tulipa præcox.
„ *clusiana.*

The large Early Tulip (*Fr. Tulipe précoce*) has red flowers spotted with black and yellow on the unguis, and is common in certain parts in the cultivated lands; flowers in April. The tiny but most charming *Tulipe de l'écluse* with its white and pink flowers is very rare; flowers in April.

Allium neapolitanum, Garlic.
„ *roseum.*
„ *subhirsutum.*
„ *triquetrum.*

These four beautiful species are met with in the fields under cultivation; the two last are somewhat rare; March to May.

Ornithogalum narbonense, Narbonne Star of Bethlehem.

Grows in shady valleys in March; rather rare.

Erythronium dens-canis, Dog's-tooth Violet.

Found high up in the mountains in April.

Muscari comosum, common Grape Hyacinth.
„ *botryoides.*

Very plentiful in the gardens and cultivated terraces.

Anthericum liliago.

Shady valleys, not rare.

Fritillaria pyrenaica, Fritillary.

In the high mountains in April; rare.

Asparaginaceæ, the Asparagus Family.

Asparagus acutifolius, Asparagus.

The pointed-leaved asparagus (*Fr. Asperge à feuilles aiguës*) grows wild on the hills; its young shoots are eatable.

Smilax aspera, Sarsaparilla.

The Sarsaparilla, with its lovely bunches of red berries, is, in spite of its thorns, one of the most pleasing climbing plants of our flora; sheltered valleys; fruit in winter.

Iridaceæ, the Iris Family.

Gladiolus segetum, Pink Gladiolus.

The pink gladiolus plays the same part in the south as the corn-flower does in the north of Europe; it overruns the arable land in all directions; May.

Hermodactylus tuberosus, the Black Iris.

A very rare plant; flowers in March.

Amaryllidaceæ, the Daffodil and Snow-drop Family.

Leucoium autumnale, the Snowflake.

The little *Snowflake* of the south is rare everywhere, and the few specimens which are met with along the coast are in the cracks and crevices of the rocks between Monaco and the frontier; March.

Narcissus poeticus, Narcissus.
„ *tazzetta.*
„ *patulus.*
„ *italicus.*
„ *incomparabilis*, Garden Daffodil.

The first-named (*Narcissus poeticus*) is as rare as the

N. patulus and *italicus*, which are, it is probable, but varieties of the *Tazzetta*; this latter abounds everywhere.

Pancratium maritimum.

One of the largest and most beautiful flowers of the Riviera, but rare in the present day; flowers in July.

Orchidaceæ, the Orchid Family.

Epipactis ensifolia.

The most graceful of our orchids; white flowers; shady valleys; May.

Limodorum abortivum.

Valleys and rocks in May, but somewhat rare.

Ophrys aranifera, Spider Orchis.
„ *scolopax.*
„ *apifera*, Bee Orchis.
„ *lutea.*
„ *anthropophora*, Green Man Orchis.
„ *fusca*, Lady Orchis.

Numerous during the month of February in most places, but each has its special quarter, the different species hardly even mingling. The *O. aranifera* and *anthropophora* are the rarest.

Orchis provincialis.

This is the only species with yellow flowers; it is found on *Monte Nero* in March.

Orchis bifolia.

Found in the high lands in April, but rare.

Orchis laxiflora.
„ *variegata.*
„ *galeata.*
„ *pyramidalis*, Pyramidical Orchis.
„ *conopsea*, Fragrant Orchis.

Orchis coriophora, Bug Orchis.
„ *simia*, Monkey Orchis.

All these are very numerous in the valleys and meadows in April and May.

O. densiflora.

The only orchis which flowers in the autumn: it has white flowers; on the hills.

Serapias lingua.
„ *longipetala.*

These two remarkable species are common near springs in the valleys; April.

Aroidaceæ, the Arum Family.

Arum italicum, the Capuchin.
„ *arisarum.*

These two species, known in France as the *Gouet d'Italie* and the *Gouet capuchon*, are, out of the whole number of the noxious and troublesome herbs, those most difficult to destroy and exterminate. The larger species is remarkable for the heat which is radiated by its pistil.

Cyperaceæ, the Sedge Family.

Cyperus schœnoides.

A beautiful species having globular heads, growing on the sands by the sea; blooms in the summer.

Cyperus rotundus.

A small species, having a triangular stem; it grows everywhere in cultivated land; and flowers throughout the year.

The Palm Family.

Chamærops humilis, the Dwarf Palm.

The Dwarf Palm is the only member of the family

which belongs to the European flora, but in the present day it is only found in a few parts of Europe; those in fact which are not overrun as completely as the rest, by the amateur botanist and specimen collector; such as the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. It formerly grew in large numbers on the Riviera, and was to be found in the neighbourhood of all the wintering resorts, and especially at the bottom of the Gulf of Villa Franca, where it probably marked the northern limit of the Palm Family.

Phœnix dactylifera, the Date Palm.

The Date Palm belongs to Northern Africa and Asia Minor, but it has been introduced within comparatively recent days, as an ornamental tree, in all those parts of Southern Europe where the climate is sufficiently warm to permit its cultivation. But in our relatively cold climate, this beautiful tree does not show itself to the same advantage as under the burning suns of the Sahara. There, it is multiplied not only by seed but also by separating the young suckers from the roots and the axils of the leaves. This last mode of propagation is the most advantageous, the plants thus obtained being all females, that is to say fruit bearers, and they will bear fruit at an age of only five or six years, whilst those obtained from seed bear no dates until they have reached an age of fifteen or twenty years.

In the oases of Southern Algeria, the inhabitants plant the Date Palm in the proportion of 100 trees to the *hectare*, and the average of each *hectare* is 72 quintals, about 72 kilos, or 1 cwt. and 1 quarter, representing from 8 to 10 clusters of fruit, each weighing from 7 to 8 kilos, or 15 lbs. to 16 lbs. English measure-

ment; the net return being about at least 1400 francs the *hectare*. No cultivation of cereals, however successfully carried out, could produce such results.

France possesses about 400 oases in Algeria planted with the Palm Tree; that of Biskra, which is the most important, containing 40,000 at the very least; some others but a few hundreds; the average probably running as high as 10,000, which will give a total for the French oases of 4,000,000 of trees and a revenue of 60,000,000 of francs.

With us at Bordighera, the date rarely ripens, for winter coming on before it has arrived at maturity, the fruit fails to acquire the flavour and sweetness which it attains in its native land. Again, at Bordighera, the tree is not cultivated for its fruit, as strangers might naturally imagine. The object is solely to obtain the white branches, and for some years past to multiply, by means of seeds, the plants for exportation, as an ornament for gardens along the coast.

Two Date palms are especially cultivated for their leaves; the first, called the *Palma alla romana*, having very long leaves, their leaflets terminating in a very solid point; the other known as the *Palma all' ebrea*, whose leaves are much shorter and their leaflets blunter.

The bleaching, or turning the Palm leaves into a yellowish white colour, is produced by a process exactly similar to that employed by the market gardeners in obtaining the white centres of the lettuces. They strongly tie up the whole of the branches so as to form a vertical roll, in the centre of which are the young leaves, which have to grow as best they may, shut off from both light

and air. This operation takes places, so far as the *Palma alla romana* is concerned, in the summer, in order that the white leaves may be ready for the Palm Sunday of the following year; and for the *all' ebrea*, in the spring, in view of the Feast of Tabernacles of the German Jews. The Palm plantations at Bordighera are nearly all grouped around the old village; in the level ground of the *Borgo Marina*, we come across none, except the magnificent one of M. Adolphe Garibaldi, which stands quite alone. The most beautiful specimens of the Date Palm in Bordighera however, are found in the garden of the Villa Moreno; some of these indeed cannot be less than from six to eight hundred years old.

But it is to the east of the old town, and especially on the steep slopes which form the entrance to the valley, that the largest palm plantations are to be found, which supply the enormous quantities of leaves despatched from these shores. The "*campanile*" of M. Charles Garnier's pretty villa gives a lovely view of these oriental gardens, which are on every side of it.

It was probably the Crusaders who introduced the date palm into Liguria and Provence; and especially may we infer that this was the case at Hyères, which was one of their ports of embarkation; but the cultivation of the tree on a large scale at Bordighera only dates back to the end of the sixteenth century, and owes its origin to an incident which occurred in Rome on the 10th of September, 1586.

The great basilica of St. Peter was then under construction, and Sixtus V. had ordered the architect, Domenico Fontana, to place in front of the *façade* of that church an Egyptian obelisk which had been

found in the amphitheatre of Nero, the actual site of the sacristy.

This operation, which modern engineers would have found a perfectly easy one, was full of difficulties to those of that period; indeed, it was looked upon as one of an important and serious character, and was accompanied by all that pomp with which the Papacy habitually surrounds its great functions.

Sixtus V. said a solemn mass, and gave his benediction to the workmen, who numbered eight hundred, besides forty horses, and then adjourned with all his suite to the grand balcony, in order that he might witness the operation. A mass of people, full of enthusiasm for art, filled to overflowing the vast *piazza*, and perfect silence reigned throughout the immense and excited crowd, owing to a cruel order threatening death to any one who uttered a cry. Everything went well until the moment when the enormous block of granite was on the point of attaining its upright position, but at this critical moment the ropes, stretching under the excessive strain, began to slacken. Instantly a loud voice broke the silence, and in spite of the penalty, rang through the air, exclaiming, "*Wet the ropes!*" This most opportune advice was immediately followed, bringing the affair safely through the crisis to a successful termination. It turned out, on inquiry being made, that the speaker was a certain Bresca, the captain of a merchant vessel hailing from San Remo. The Pope ordered the gallant sailor to be brought into his presence, and, far from punishing him, presented him with a handsome sword, and, more important than this, granted to his family the privilege of supplying palms to the Vatican for Palm Sunday and the Holy Week Services.

Graminaceæ, the Grass Family.

Lagurus ovatus.
Briza maxima, Large Quaking Grass.
„ *minima*, Little Quaking Grass.
Stipa pennata, Feather Grass.

The Grasses of this neighbourhood offer hardly any interest to the amateur botanist, for they do not differ sensibly from those of Northern Europe. The *Stipa pennata*, with its long, feathery edges, is only to be found on the higher mountain ranges.

Arundo donax, the Provençal Cane.

This is probably a native of Asia, but is now cultivated over the whole of the South of Europe.

It is to a certain extent a classic plant, for from it were manufactured the first musical instruments; probably it was from this reed the great god Pan cut his pipe, and from which he discoursed such strange music. Everyone is conversant, too, with the line in Virgil:

"Agrestem tenui meditabor arundine musam."

Filices, Ferns.

Ceterach officinarum.
Asplenium ruta-muraria.
„ *adiantum nigrum.*
Polypodium vulgare.

These four varieties are numerous on old walls in all moist and sheltered positions.

Adiantum capillus-Veneris, Maiden Hair.

This gem of the flora of Southern Europe carpets the rocks in some especially moist situations, and particularly the *Vallon Obscur*, near Nice; it is also found amongst the crevices of the stones which form the well-sides, and

in the fissures of the rocks from whence the springs emerge into daylight; and it is the belief of the peasantry that the presence of this fern is a sign that the water is especially pure.

Pteris aquilina, Common Brake.
„ *cretica.*

These are rather rare, but found occasionally in the damp woods; the latter especially, with its entire fronds.

Aspidium filix-mas, Male Fern.

The only large fern which grows low down near the coast; it is fairly common in our valleys.

PART V.

ARTISTIC FEATURES OF BORDIGHERA.*

By M. Charles Garnier, Architect.

I.

To Artists.

We may take it, I think, as a general rule, that artists as a body do not care to have subjects either for sketches or finished works pointed out to them. They infinitely prefer to wander hither and thither at will, and discover for themselves those picturesque spots, those tempting "bits" which they find so great a delight in transferring to their sketch-book or canvas. If, then, it always happened that the artists who visited Bordighera came there intending to make a long stay, I at least should be the last to anticipate their impressions, but should leave them to ramble haphazard, feeling certain that their artistic instinct would direct them to all the interesting points of the neighbourhood. But it is probable that some of the landscape painters and amateur artists who visit this spot do little more (if it is allowable to say so) than take a

* This interesting description of Bordighera considered from an artistic point of view has already been published in two successive editions of my little guide-book: *Bordighera in gennaio, Vade-Mecum del Forestiere.*

hasty turn round; and it is possible therefore, that, in spite of their innate faculty for discovering beautiful "subjects," they may pass over the most picturesque spots and lovely and characteristic views, without being aware of their existence. Thus, they would not only lose the enjoyment which such exquisite views would give them, but also fail to carry away a just recollection of Bordighera: a result, if possible, to be avoided.

I think, therefore, that I may be rendering a service to those artists who are but birds of passage, and to all lovers of the picturesque who have but a short time to stay in this lovely corner of the Riviera, if I attempt to point out some of the places they ought to visit, if they wish to fix on their minds, if not on their canvasses or in their sketch-books, some of those innumerable subjects, as quaint as characteristic, which make Bordighera unlike any other town in the world.

For in truth Bordighera is far less Italy than Palestine, and without crossing the sea, we can imagine, if so inclined, as we wander through the old town and its environs, that we have been transported to the Holy Land, and, in one particular spot, even to the kingdom of the Pharaohs.

But it is not my wish to write pages of description. I am only anxious to be of use to those who have but little time at their disposal; though perhaps, indeed, some of the information I am able to give may prove of interest even to those of our visitors who are spending some time at Bordighera.

In the following pages I have called attention to some of the most interesting points of view in the neighbourhood. I do not attempt to class them in order of merit, for each has its especial charm; but I have grouped them

into a series of walks, which will enable the tourist to visit the spots referred to.

II.

The Tower of Mostaccini.

We will imagine our artist starting from the little *Piazza* facing the church steps in the old town. Passing the square where stands the fountain, he must turn to the right, then to the left, and he will find himself in the narrow passage leading to the aqueduct, where all the washerwomen of Bordighera are engaged in their work. Crossing the little stream which renders their labours possible, he must take the somewhat steep little path on the other side, and having reached the extreme point, turn to the left; he will then be on the direct path to the old fountain (*Fontana Vecchia*), and cannot fail by any chance to lose his way. The first part of this path is very beautiful, as indeed are all in this part of the Riviera, but it possesses no special character. But continue the walk, and we shall soon arrive at the old fountain, a little spring situated at the corner of the road, and which is decidedly picturesque in appearance. In front of this fountain, where the ground shelves suddenly and forms a hollow, is a very shut in valley, now part of M. Bischoffsheim's property, which is quite worth spending a few minutes in visiting; but it will be best at present if we merely content ourselves with descending a few steps, and leaving the pretty valley to be explored on our return. Any way, those who follow it through its whole length will find charming subjects for their sketch-book, already composed for them, and full of rich colour. But we must

still follow the path, and after about a quarter of an hour's walking, shall arrive at the upper end of another valley, which we must examine carefully on our return, for it is a very remarkable one. The road now divides; one branch at once ascending, and the other, the continuation of that we have so far followed, turning obliquely to the left. This it is, along which we must still pursue our walk: it now becomes very bad and stony, and leads us to the bottom of the massive rocks upon which is built the tower of Mostaccini. At this point, where the almost vertical rock towers in front of us, dressed in its robe of ivy and wild briar, we shall find two or three grand subjects, full of wildness and character. This superb rock to the left, in front of us the sea, to our right the French mountains, the whole of the foreground broken up by the masses of olive trees, form together a wonderful picture, offering magnificent subjects of untamed and savage nature.

We must now take the little path which it is somewhat difficult to make out, so slightly marked is it, which passes below the rocks upon the left, and follow it steadily until it passes the fragments of an old wall; a little beyond this we shall find our track is crossed by a little path which winds up the mountain in the opposite direction, and shortly we arrive at what appears to be an old ruin, almost hidden by masses of brambles. It is at this point that the view is most beautiful and most extensive.

I have no intention of describing it, but only wish to indicate as precisely as possible the exact point from which it is to be obtained. For it is a view, I do not hesitate to say, which from its panoramic character is one of the finest in the world.

We can now proceed to the Tower, either by taking the

little path on our left, or by climbing that which is little better than an apology for a path, which we find to the right: both of these will lead us to our destination, which is now barely 150 yards distant. Here also a very lovely view is to be obtained, but personally I much prefer the former.

We must now pass by the stone wall raised in front of the tower, and turn again into the little bridle-path which descends on our right, and by which we shall arrive almost immediately at the level plateau, where is the cluster of pines which crowns that portion of the summit. Before continuing the track which leads us back again to the plain, let us stop for a few moments on the pine crest and turn our eyes towards the left: here are at least four or five delightful subjects for our sketch-books, which seem to stand out from their surroundings, as if only waiting to be reproduced on canvas. This is an especially characteristic corner of Bordighera, and one which is not likely to be soon forgotten. It is not of course possible to indicate the exact spots where one should place one's self to get these suggestive subjects in the best possible aspect: but any painter or sketcher possessing the artistic faculty, once brought to this place, will choose for himself, and cannot fail to choose satisfactorily. Let us now descend the path (here very steep and badly cut) as it winds serpent-like down the face of the crumbling hill, and either by continuing along it, or by taking the path cut by M. Bischoffsheim as a plan for a road, we arrive at the bottom of the hill.

Then, instead of following the road, we will turn to the left, for the path is sufficiently marked to enable us to trace it; besides, it has the further attraction that it creeps

along the right bank of the little torrent, almost always dry, which forms the lower part of the valley up which I am anxious we should wander. It is in this valley that the landscape painter will find the most tempting subjects imaginable, with powerful lights and shadows; whilst even the ordinary tourist, who chances to discover this spot, will find shade, a refreshing breeze, peaceful solitude, and all those hundred and one charms so dear to the tired pedestrian, longing for a resting-place.

When sufficiently rested, we will again move forward, continuing to mount the torrent, until we find on our *left* some rocks rising almost perpendicularly: here let us leave the path for a little, and wandering hither and thither, enjoy the ever fresh and always charming "bits" which continually present themselves to our view. Pass across also, if you are inclined, to the right side of the torrent, follow the bed of it for a time and in the little *école buissonnière*, to which I would guide you, you will find, amidst periwinkles, violets, flags, &c., a path which will more than once stop you short with the longing to transfer some of its beauties to the sketch-book, which should be your constant companion.

If we follow this as far as the top of the ravine, we can, if so inclined, return by the road leading to the *Fontana Vecchia;* but this is rather waste of time, for the upper part of this torrent is not equal to the lower. So it is preferable only to go on, until on our right hand we see a sort of arched glade, flanked by a large vertical rock covered with ivy; cross this aperture by a jump, and climb, even though it may cost you some little trouble, towards the right, so as to arrive *below* the rock just referred to. Here the path is very difficult to indicate; indeed, it may be

said to be non-existent, and what does exist is far from being horizontal: it follows the rows of olive trees, and this necessitates one's passing and repassing, as one progresses, close to some of the finest trees it is possible to see, some above, some below us, according to the height we have reached. Let us turn our backs now on Bordighera and our steps into the very heart of this lovely forest, where many of the trees are centuries old. We may chance here to lose ourselves, but it will be nothing serious. Any way, we shall most probably arrive at the little ravine before mentioned, the ravine of the *Fontana Vecchia*. We will cross it if we can, or rather if we feel inclined, for this is not anywhere a difficult operation. However, I warn you that *here* we shall be trespassing on a portion of the grounds of the Villa Bischoffsheim, so that it will perhaps be preferable to enter by the gate which opens on the *Strada Romana*. Besides, we can see the villa at the same time, for the gate is always open to all who care to enter; and if *I* am not able to say a good word for it, I hope you at least will not think any ill of it.* Then, if you are not knocked-up with seeing so many beautiful effects, and each as characteristic as it is beautiful, give one farewell glance around this lovely spot, and then we will go out by the door which opens out of the rustic fence dividing the garden from the olive woods. Here we re-emerge on the path leading to the *Fontana Vecchia*, but are compelled to descend several of the terraces, as the track follows the winding of the fence. Then, continuing our walk, we very soon arrive at a bare and open spot, a sort of clearing on

* The author of these papers is also the architect of the villa in question, one of the handsomest in the neighbourhood, and which was selected for the residence of the Queen of Italy in the spring of 1880.—A. C. D.

the hill side, where is a little white building, having a black cross painted above the door; this is the point which tells us that a good path is close at hand. We pass onwards, along one of the vine terraces below, and at the end of that which has an enormous fig-tree growing out of the supporting wall, we shall find the path we are in quest of; it is a capital one, and will lead us direct to Bordighera, to the very point from whence we left it. Here I shall bid you farewell, with hope that the excursion we have just made together has been a pleasant one. Only one thing I must ask you to bear in mind, in taking it alone or introducing it to a new comer, that it should always be made in the afternoon, for at that period of the day both the mountains and valleys have a better light upon them.

III.

Sig. Moreno's Garden.

It is unnecessary for me to tell you how to find this marvellous garden, the pearl of Bordighera; anyone will show you the way. Indeed, I am almost ashamed to mention this garden, for it is almost as if I were mentioning the sea! Any way it ought not to be neglected by artists, as, apart from the extremely rare and interesting plants and shrubs which it contains in great numbers, there are certain delightful corners, thoroughly characteristic of the place and worthy of admiration from all who love nature and her handiwork. For example, this large pool or reservoir, surrounded by those clumps of enormous palms,—can anything be more characteristic, more oriental or more suggestive of the Arabian Nights? And the lower portion of the garden too; can one ever visit it too

often—with its twisted palms, creeping everywhere, and all entangled the one with the other? At each step, new pictures, fresh combinations present themselves to our eyes, and the painter is only embarrassed by the variety ready to his choice: embarrassed very greatly indeed in this enchanted garden of E len; but can a stronger proof be wanting of the number and variety of the subjects it offers for our sketch-book? Do not delay then, O painters and brothers of the brush, to visit this garden, for it is unique in Europe: study those clumps of Palm trees, the *Phœnix dactylifera*, the *Chamœrops*, the *Latania*, mingled with the Bananas, the Oranges of every variety; and if you do not reproduce anything on your canvas, at least you will have added to the storehouse of your memory a radiant corner of the East, and your imagination cannot fail to be more poetical, by contact with its enchantment.

IV.

The Cape of St. Ampelio.

I am not desirous now of speaking of the view from the Cape, nor of the Cape itself, as a place for a stroll. As such it is the first place which should be visited by every stranger on his arrival at Bordighera, and a tourist must indeed be hard to please if he is not charmed with it. But I am anxious especially to call attention to that portion of it formed by the jutting-out rocks, which is seen from the Cornice Road, at the point where stands the little chapel of St. Ampelio. Here there is a little roofless hut, close to which is a winding ascent leading to a rude bastion, and close by a large wooden cross, which give to the whole a character, if we may use the term, of grandeur

and simplicity combined which is unequalled along the Riviera. The soft line which crowns the Cape, the roofs of some old houses which rise just above, two or three stunted olives lower down to the left, and the gorgeous colouring of the foreground, make this corner of Bordighera like a bit of the East, or perhaps rather one of those subjects, purely oriental in character, which delight the imagination, and to which our memory is ever ready to return.

Look also in the direction of the entrance to the railway tunnel with the deep blue of the Mediterranean forming a wonderful background! What a picture to delight an artist's eyes! and one as striking as typical; and I vow, that so far as I personally am concerned, I would most willingly give up all of the famous promenades of the great capitals of Europe for this exquisite little bit of the East; the characteristics of which are stamped around us in all their fulness and beauty. Ah! my brother artists, look well, I pray you, at this little corner, with its rich colouring: out with your sketch-books and your canvasses; make your studies and pictures whilst it is still possible to do so, and endeavour to reproduce this exquisite bit of this most beautiful neighbourhood; for alas! it is more than probable this striking page of nature's book is destined soon to disappear! Bordighera has taken, like so many places along the Riviera, a great start forwards, and is entering upon a new existence: it is rapidly becoming a town, luxurious if not fashionable, instead of a simple and picturesque village; and it is not improbable, therefore, that before very long, perhaps sooner than many think, this unique cape may be transformed into the conventional square; if, indeed, it

may not have erected upon it an ostentatious Casino with all its meritricious accompaniments! Then farewell for ever to the artistic character of the place! For the Eastern surroundings will disappear and give place to the feeble conventionalities of Western civilisation, and those rich and picturesque gifts, which nature, time, and even the poverty of the country have combined to give us, will but survive in the recollection of the past.

I beseech, therefore, all those having authority and influence in our little community to preserve, as far as possible, the three great features of Bordighera; viz. the Old Town, the eastern side of the Sasso torrent, and the Cape facing St. Ampelio's chapel. We must think of *the Artists*, as much as we do of the winter visitors; for it is the former, let us remember, to whom the reputation of Bordighera is due. Who knows that in the future, when our visitors may have departed to other still unmodernised towns, that it will not be to the painters, we shall have to go, if we desire to bring back to our recollection this City of Palm Trees? Do not let us then allow *this* part at least to be transformed; let the west side, if you will, become the home of our winter residents and visitors, but, in Heaven's name, stop at the Cape and leave its natural picturesqueness to remain just as Nature has presented it to us. Whatever happens, let us not add a touch to this roofless cottage, this ruined bastion, this zig-zag path, the rocks which blush in the sunset, or the little olives, which in their unpruned luxuriousness have a delicacy of outline most graceful and ideally beautiful.

You have there, *Bordighesi*, in truth, a rough diamond; do not try and make a too costly casket, or it is possible that in so doing you may chance to hide your gem.

V.

The Old Town.

There is no doubt that in bygone days there must have existed a Good Genius, who took the landscape painter especially under his protection. This Good Genius built all the narrow and winding streets, designed the old towns which are perched upon the hillsides, surrounded the cities with towers and ramparts, and above all, threw the sunbeams into the many cracks and crevices and allowed the moonlight to glisten so weirdly on the deep gateways and lofty *Campanili*. However, in the present day, this kindly Spirit appears to be somewhat exhausted by his labours—"played out," the Americans might term it—and his place has been filled by the Genius of the Civil Engineer, whose idea of beauty is a horizontal plane, a straight line, and an angle of 90 degrees! You will not take long in finding out what pranks the latter has been playing in our neighbourhood, as everywhere else; let us trust, however, that he may be so fatigued by his journey, as at least to leave untouched the *Old Town*, to some of the picturesque bits of which I now proposed to introduce you. For all true artists will rejoice to find in this old portion of Bordighera one of the works of the Good Genius just referred to; here they can penetrate into thousands of little corners, in each of which a subject may be found, as characteristic as picturesque.

The *Via Dritta*, which leads from the town to Signor Moreno's Garden, is one of these typical bits: or two, rather; for you can either place yourself at the bottom of

the steep declivity with the old Gateway as a background; or, better still, reverse your position: let the old Town Gate serve as a border and foreground; allowing you to see through the arch the panorama it encloses, standing out in full relief. The composition is as perfect in one as in the other, and more than one artist of my acquaintance has already reproduced them. As to the little Piazza in which the church stands, it is a composition which is simply perfect in its details, especially when, standing alongside the door of the parish church, one views the *Campanile* rising from the curious base formed by the black-toned arcades. There is indeed, in the harmonious effect produced, something which reminds one of Verona or Vicenza, and one is compelled to admit, that under all circumstances, this place, so viewed, possesses a character which is essentially Italian. And, if you will believe it possible, they have actually thought of pulling down these old houses in order to open up a communication between this *piazza* and the *Via Lunga*. It would have been nothing less than an act of the most horrible vandalism, viewed either from an artistic or common-sense point of view. Already indeed, the authorities have gone so far as to colour with a whitish yellow tint the *rez-de-chaussée* of the Portico on the right, which was formerly so harmonious in its neutral tones of smoky hue. But after all, one must not expect everything, and by degrees this yellow wash will return again to the more harmonious tints of the past, but this will not apply to the proposed demolition of which I spoke; for time in that case would be powerless to cure the evil, should it ever chance to take place.

If, however, the authorities of Bordighera wish to turn their attention to this curious old spot, which is in fact the

most interesting point of the town, they can do so, not only without interfering with its picturesque character, but, on the contrary, by carrying out an improvement which will much intensify its already marked individuality: I mean by replacing the sharply pointed and painful stones (boulders, rather), which at present serve for pavement, by flagstones of a large size, which we see now in most of the Italian towns. Nothing is pleasanter to the eye, or more agreeable and quieter to walk upon, or would better contribute to give a sort of *comme il faut discret* to the streets and *piazzas*, making them both attractive and artistic. This it is which artists must demand, and when the *façade* of the old church has to a certain extent been restored, not modernised but in the Italian style of its date, one will find in Bordighera a sort of little Forum, which will not be the least interesting amongst the marvellous *campi* of Italy. However, whilst we are waiting to see these wishes realised, there is already plenty to delight and occupy the eye of a painter, and the circuit of the old ramparts, both inside and out, offers to him at once only one of a number of subjects which, added to those I have already mentioned, are sufficient to show that the artist who desires to reproduce the characteristics of the old town will not be obliged to stand idle, but has merely to select from subjects which are as charming as they are varied.

As to the town as seen from the exterior, it presents on its four sides four different aspects, all very simple, but of most harmonious lines. The two most interesting are: first, that looking to the west from the front of the *Pension Anglaise*, and which, rising as it does from the picturesque rock, has a very striking appearance; and

secondly, that which is best viewed from the *Campanile* of my villa. There, the lines are both dignified and graceful, and the outline of the bell tower of the commune crowns to perfection this collection of walls and of darkly toned houses, which stand out sharp and clear against the cloudless sky, all coloured as it is by the rays of the setting sun.

VI.

The Villa Charles Garnier.

If I mention *this* villa, I must beg the reader to understand that I do not do so to praise it, or to call attention to any artistic features it may chance to possess. But I have thought it my duty not to pass it over in silence, because from its terraces and its *Campanile* the most lovely view can be obtained, and some very charming subjects, suitable to the landscape painter, are to be found in the garden. I wish above all to make it clear to any stranger who may visit our town, that the door of the villa stands always open to those who may care to enter. I am not perhaps able to offer them any great attraction, but I am at least anxious to adopt to strangers the hospitality which is everywhere found in Italy, whose inhabitants always open to the passer-by not only their public buildings, but even their private houses and their homes.

VII.

The Sasso Torrent.

This is one of the most interesting points of Bordighera, and the excursion which I am now about to sketch out is one of those which every lover of nature, let alone an

artist, should not fail to make before he moves forward. It is besides both a short and a pleasant one, and can be easily made without the aid of a guide. If, then, I venture to take the reader by the hand, as we take this walk together, it is more for the sake of not leaving the spot unmentioned, than because I think I can be of real assistance to him. For, to be perfectly honest, there is nothing which gives me greater pleasure than to take this walk as often as I can; so perhaps I shall be allowed the equal pleasure of describing it.

We must then turn off at the common lavatory (where the washerwomen "most do congregate"), of which I have before spoken, on the road to the *Fontana Vecchia*, but now to the right, and follow the little canal which conveys water for irrigation.

Our path at first lies along the covered aqueduct (*this* supplying the drinking water for the townspeople), and if the road is not very broad, it is at least nearly horizontal, and we can follow it without the least fatigue. After going forward for some time along a sort of alley formed by the high walls of various private gardens, above which we notice the tufted heads of some very beautiful palm-trees, we arrive at some patches of cultivated land, where are some magnificent olive trees, growing upon terraces supported by massive stone walls, which are wonderful to look upon, and form a glorious foreground to the masses of trees of every description. At each step we take the view changes, but ever presenting the same character, viz. Italy and especially the neighbourhood of Naples; and it is indeed an endless delight to our eyes, a veritable panorama, only broken by a corner here and there, which does but give to each picture not only completeness, but individuality.

There is also the wood below, with its harmonious tones, with its graceful and varied foliage; these alone are sufficient to arrest the footsteps of all artists or true lovers of nature who may chance to wander along this path.

And in following the tiny canal we soon skirt a pine-wood, but with the trees still young and thinly planted, but some of which, nevertheless, are very graceful in form. Then at the turn of the road we see the village of Sasso, perched on the height above, and standing out boldly and picturesquely in the midst of the green woods which surround it. After a short half-hour's walk, we at length arrive at a large aqueduct which crosses the torrent, the single arch of which is perfectly graceful. We may, if we choose, continue to follow the smaller aqueduct, and clamber for some little distance along the bed of the torrent; but there are indeed such a number of interesting features in this excursion, it is almost better for us to retrace our steps and return by the torrent itself.

To carry this idea into practice we will take the little path which turns off at the end of the aqueduct, and which leads directly to the bed of the torrent. I will add, in parenthesis, that this path *might* be somewhat less steep and more convenient, especially towards the lower portion. It does not, however, need anything but a few strokes from a pickaxe, and I will undertake to say that at the cost of a few francs it might be made far more pleasant for walking than at present. However, we must not let this deter us.

The descent is very short, and we arrive before long beneath a large arch. It is a good plan at this point to remount again some dozen yards or so and view the valley through this picturesque arch, which forms a natural and charming frame. This done, we will return again to the

bed of the torrent, gathering now here, now there, some of the many-coloured anemones which flourish even amongst the stones, and, passing sometimes along a track which it is almost impossible to distinguish, sometimes climbing across the stones which the winter floods bring down with them, we shall have no difficulty in following its course. This path has, you may notice, to the left a graceful little spring, which trickles in the midst of maiden-hair ferns, and by enormous barren rocks, and by the brilliant oleanders which are scattered about on every side. There were but a year or so back some even more beautiful than those around us, but those, alas! have been cut down. However, those left will before long throw out new shoots, and the ravages we have noticed will be effaced.

I have no desire to describe all the beauties, charming as they are, which this delightful walk presents to us, but will only say, Look continually before you, look frequently behind, and at every step you take, fresh subjects for your sketch-book will arise before your eyes.

Then, when we have arrived at a sort of dam which cuts the torrent bed in half, from which the water is directed to a little watercourse which follows the left bank of the torrent, we must descend by a little smooth, shelving slope to the *right* of the before-mentioned barrier, and continue along the torrent's bed for about another 200 feet.

Here we shall find on our right hand the broken wall supporting the water-course, and must climb some ten or a dozen roughly-cut steps, in order that we may follow to our right the most tempting little path which passes under the shade of a clump of palm-trees. Here they are even

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more beautiful than before, and are planted apparently to present the appearance of magnificent bouquets or *macchie* of the most exquisite outline.

Still following this winding path, with the soft murmur of the stream which flows at its side as an accompaniment, we shall before long arrive at a sort of little aqueduct. We must stop here, for we shall find below a ravine, which, though not of any great size, is nevertheless simply fairy-like in its beauty. Are there not here the golden apples and the palm trees? Are there not the garlands of wild briars and clumps of laurels? It is indeed a marvel of beauty, and if a painter would find it difficult to reproduce a subject so complicated in all its details, there will always be for him at the worst the satisfaction of seeing how well nature knows how to combine her subjects and to vary her charms.

But we must move forward again, and still in the same track, and soon shall come across in our path the stump of a palm tree jutting out from the wall: it is all that remains of a remarkably curious tree which has been cut down by the owner of the land surrounding, because it proved inconvenient to him in his work!

This is, however, only what one might expect, for the peasant all the world over has ever been found without artistic sympathies of any kind; and I cannot help feeling regret as I think of the leaves once hanging above in an undulating cluster, and the tree raising herself gracefully to spread out her proud tufts! But we must pass on until we come upon a large reservoir; here we must take the path which descends, and which is formed by a series of steps cut in the rock: then at the bottom of these steps cross to the left, and pass behind some new palm plantations; and after taking a few steps, turn round, and you will have before your eyes a picture which will fairly captivate you with its harmonious composition, colour, and character: a little house close to a broken-down terrace, a staircase built on an arch of bricks, whilst a palm tree laden with dates towers beside them. In front, forming the foreground, a grand clump of palm-trees of noble shape, which of itself forms a perfect frame to the cottage; below us the valley which presents the whole of its left bank to our view, and at the bottom of everything the bed of the torrent, wild and stony and desolate. It is, indeed, a magnificent scene. It is Palestine brought back to us, and we might christen it, not the Torrent of Sasso, but the *Valley of Kedron*, and full worthy is it of its sacred name. But whether we call it the one or the other, it is a very lovely valley from the painter's point of view, and *that*, after all, is the principal one.

We cannot now do better than return to Bordighera by skirting the cemetery, which, to tell the truth, is somewhat out of harmony with the wild and characteristic aspect of nature which surrounds it.

The Memorial Chapel of the Moreno family is a monument of true artistic merit, but it is at present too fresh and bright in tone, and draws our attention too forcibly to its markedly Gothic character: but in the course of time the stone of which it is built will be considerably modified in tone, and have a somewhat less glaring appearance, and it may perhaps be set down as a bastard specimen of the architecture of the Crusaders of old in Palestine. It will then be somewhat more in harmony with its surroundings; besides, it is necessary that

we should think of the visitors and endeavour as far as possible to hide this resting-place from their view, or at least make it as beautiful as possible. And to do so most effectually it will be necessary to plant a number of cyprus trees, which will only allow a few white stones to be seen through their tall and slender forms, or a simple cross, and perchance one or two ornaments upon the pyramid of the chapel referred to.

This done, the cemetery will have an appearance far more subdued and reverent in character, and be in a similar key to its settings, whilst the mass of deep-green foliage will not only conceal it under its dark wing, but will harmonise with the savage grandeur of the Valley of Kedron.

VIII.

The Torrent of Cephisus.

I am ignorant of the name of this torrent; no doubt I could discover it if I desired to do so, but I infinitely prefer that which I have given as a recollection of the springs of Cephisia, of the form and character of which it greatly reminds me. Let us put it down then as the *Cephisus*, which flows through Bordighera, and allow me to conduct you to it.

When you have passed the torrent of Sasso on the Cornice Road, a little before you arrive at the quarry, where is excavated the stone from Monte Nero, there is a tiny cottage built of rubble, upon the right side of a little spring. Follow this spring which juts out at the mountain's foot. This is the way to *Cephisus*.

We begin to mount almost immediately at this point; but before starting off take notice, in a path somewhat broader than that you are following, of an immense palm-tree which there rears itself, its head slightly bending. You will find in this new road a beautiful view, and should you chance to have your sketch-book with you, you will most certainly feel tempted to stop and sketch it. Whilst in this path, continue to follow it until you arrive at the torrent: there you will see a ruined house, which has nothing remarkable so far as its exterior is concerned; but cross the torrent on the stepping-stones and enter into this tumble-down building, and if you have, even in the smallest degree, the artistic faculty, I promise you a grand treat as you penetrate this weather-stained ruin. It must once, I think, have been an oil mill, but for many years abandoned; some old vats to the left, at the bottom a wheel with wooden cogs, empty holes here and there, nothing very particular in the arrangement, but things which, though essentially common in themselves, by studying their composition, by following the light which comes in at the door, in fact, by taking in the decay into which everything has fallen, will be found to possess a marvellous wildness and savageness, almost incredible.

It is here, as before, that the historic scenes of the Bible are again presented to us; sometimes under one aspect, sometimes under another.

This is the history of Samson; for it is not difficult to imagine that here, in this retired little nook, he toiled at the millstone. And truly a painter of *genre* — we might even add, an historical painter — could hardly find a better bit of scenery to form a background to some such composition, than this sombre

dungeon affords. Decamp himself, if he had known it, would without doubt have employed it in the grand pages of his history of that great patriot. It is possible, that to be especially affected by the charms of this original spot, one's mind should be cast in a peculiar mould, and all my readers perhaps may not be able to feel exactly as I do about it. However, whether or not, make a point of visiting this ancient mill; that will be a good criterion, for if you are of my opinion, you will be one of the privileged ones of the world: since it will prove you to be endowed with imagination and the artistic faculty.

This having been accomplished, return a little on your path and clamber up a short slope; this will quickly enable you to regain the first path of which I spoke. Follow this then as it passes across a rock, which is partly buried in the ground; and sometimes ascending, sometimes descending, you will arrive exactly opposite a tiny, a remarkably tiny, house—a sort of doll's house indeed, which stands on the extreme edge of the torrent's bank. I infer that you will see this quaint cottage a little below you; if you do not find the path conducts you exactly opposite, descend, as well as you can, the terraces which separate you, and you will have reached the bed of the *Cephisus*. By this tiny cottage, both to the right and left, we at once notice two lovely subjects for landscape painters, quite Greek in feeling, and which will themselves alone repay you for your search for them. But mount the torrent again, some twenty steps or so, if you will not mind doing so; that will give you another aspect of the same subjects, for seen either from before or behind they are equally striking. Then direct your

steps until below you, and somewhat to the right, is a little bridge; pass over it for a few yards; there again are lovely and suggestive subjects composed ready for your brush.

I have not attempted to describe the various details which make up these pictures. I can but say this to you: that *Cephisus* and *Eurotas*, in spite of their peculiar beauty, are not equal to the Cephisus of Bordighera, which, independently of the shape of the rocks which surround it, of the oleanders which are scattered everywhere, and of the glorious peep of the blue Mediterranean, has beyond these the most magnificent palm trees, artistically planted, of grand size, and which gives to the whole an effect which is perfectly Greek.*

In truth, I can only say, "This little corner is Greece," but Greece with all the beauties of the East added to it; and I can assure you that it is an act of great unselfishness on my part to make such a spot known to you, for at the present moment it seems to me as if it was a private possession of my own. As the most profound solitude always reigns there, I will risk doing so; and the silence so adds to the charm of the place, that I am unable entirely to free myself from it.

Perhaps now that I have made known my treasure to the whole world, and made common that which has hitherto been sacred to me—perhaps I shall never be tempted again to visit it, for it can never have the same attraction as when it was my own. At least, I have honestly fulfilled my duty as *Cicerone*, and I shall have to be recompensed by the hope that those

* It is curious that Mr. Pater takes a similar view of the character of this part of the coast in his charming book, *Sketches in Italy and Greece*.—A. C. D

who on my recommendation have paid my Cephisus a visit may find that my imagination is not so great as the reality, and that they will not merely content themselves with a glance at it. This is, indeed, my earnest hope each time that I visit my beloved torrent. But alas! even since I have written these lines, already a change has come over it, for here and there portions of it have been embanked with stone walls, and something of its picturesque character has passed away. Lose no time then in visiting it; in a few years more perhaps there will be no need to give it a page in a guide-book!

IX.

The Well of La Ruota.

Let us now, for this our last ramble, turn along the Cornice Road, and follow it as far as the little chapel of La Ruota. Facing the latter is a long path leading to the edge of the sea. We will descend it, and, when arrived at the bottom, direct our steps towards the clump of palms which we see upon our right.

These have been originally planted in two irregular lines; between is an old cistern, an old well, now full of stones, and some yards in front, a large, flat, broad rock, which has the appearance of reposing on the ground; further down some undulating ground covered with broom, heath, rock, and brambles, all burnt up by the sun, and beyond as a boundary line, giving a finish to the picture, the deep blue of the Mediterranean, glorious in the sunshine. Here then is a place to visit, for all my readers who are painters or lovers of nature; here, O poets, is a spot

to delight your hearts, a corner of "beauty, to be a joy for ever," where those should come who seek a fresh and keen, yet pure sensation, and who know that for them at least nature has the power of making their hearts beat faster!

I have before spoken of the *oriental* character of Bordighera, and certainly nowhere is this characteristic more strongly marked than in those spots which, under my charge, you have lately visited; but I vow nevertheless, that if continued reminiscences of the East are presented to us, as we pass through the old town and its surroundings, such is no longer the case here: for now it is not a reminiscence which is brought to our minds, but the reality which is set before our eyes; here it is Palestine itself with all its associations that is conjured up before us. Nay, it is more than this: it is not the Palestine of to-day, but the ideal Palestine we so like to dream of. This is the fountain where sat the Samaritan woman, where Rebecca met Isaac;* there are the Jews, there are the apostles, there is Jerusalem! Nazareth and Bethlehem reappear once more in the simple nook of the little Bordighera promontory, and yet, almost while we look upon it, the scene is changing: the plough during the past year has already passed over the soil! Who can tell what the future has in store for this ancient deserted cistern and these partially uprooted palm-trees? Surely it would not cost a large sum to save it? Why cannot the town of Bordighera purchase the site and save from impending ruin this spot, as unique as it is interesting? If the town is too poor, then let a subscription

* The English residents at Bordighera have given to this spot the pretty and expressive name of "*Rebecca's well.*"—A. C. D.

be made. Should this not prove sufficient to cover it, let some of the rich proprietors of the place devote some of their gold to save from destruction this corner, so suggestive of both the Old and New Testament; and finally, if none care to give themselves the pleasure, which the doing of such an artistic and noble act, and done for the benefit of all, would result in,—well, hand over this portion of the shore to *me*, and I will promise that it shall never be mutilated or given up to speculation.

THE END.

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